

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1873.

The Week.

MR. B. F. BUTLER has overreached himself with his Salary Bill by trying to tack it on to the Miscellaneous Appropriation Bill, and thus prevent direct debate on it. A motion for this purpose was therefore defeated with the aid of those who are favorable to the scheme on its merits. The Louisiana Committee of Investigation has reported that the votes in that State at the late election were not counted by anybody who had a legal right to do so, and Louisiana will therefore probably contribute nothing to the decision of the Electoral College. Except the passage of the bill in the Senate providing for the distribution of the *Alabama* damages by commissioners, and the return of Oakes Ames with his "memorandum book," there is little other news of importance from Washington. It seems more and more likely that nothing will be done at present about the *Alabama* damages, and that the money will pass into the Treasury and lie there indefinitely. Under the decision of both Houses, that the United States receive it in absolute ownership, there is no good reason why it should not; but about the effect of the performance on the national reputation there can, unhappily, be no doubt. Coming close on the *Crédit Mobilier* affair, one hardly knows what to say about it that can make it either look worse or better.

To complete the account of the *Crédit Mobilier* investigation, it ought not to be forgotten that one of the most curious features connected with it was the fate of J. B. Stewart, a stubborn witness, who refused to tell the Wilson Committee what he did with a quarter of a million of dollars given him by the Union Pacific Railroad in June, 1864—about the time when the act was passed by Congress making the Government loan a second instead of a first mortgage. Mr. Stewart—who is described as "sometimes of New York and sometimes of Washington, a lawyer of some prominence, a lobbyist of skill and daring, nearly seven feet in height, with an immense frame and an erect carriage," but of "slow and deliberate movements"—declined to tell the Committee anything about this money, notwithstanding that he had already before the Committee admitted the receipt of it; his manner was "defiant," while that of the Committee was "considerate and forbearing." His reason for refusing to testify was the "privilege of counsel," and although he was assured in the most gentlemanly way that this did not protect him, he remained as stubborn as ever, and would disclose nothing, though in a negative way his testimony pointed to "newspaper proprietors" as the recipients of some, at least, of the money. Mr. Stewart by this means has succeeded in getting himself brought with much solemnity before the bar of the House for contempt, in making an oration on the liberties of the subject and constitutional rights, and finally in being committed to the custody of the Sergeant-at-Arms, in which he will languish till the 4th of March, when he will proceed to business again. Throughout the whole affair no one has cut a better figure than J. B. Stewart.

The Wilson Committee has been examining the books of the Union Pacific Company in Boston; but the testimony of B. F. Ham, who is described as the auditor of the railroad and secretary of the *Crédit Mobilier*, as it appears in the newspapers, is so unintelligible that we must probably wait for the Committee's report before being able to unravel it. One of the things which the auditor undertook to explain was the loss of a quantity of Union Pacific bonds, now missing a long time. This loss is always described in the testimony as "shortage," the securities used up having been so great in amount, and having been sent round the country so much,

"carried" and "placed" and "put up" and "deposited" to such a degree, that they gradually came to be regarded in the office of the Company as being in bulk, like wheat or oats, and liable to the same sort of vicissitudes; as for example, that of being on arrival found "short" in quantity—as lawyers say, "by the act of God." The shortage to which we refer is thus explained by Mr. Ham. In March, 1869, he was told to "lock up his safe and leave New York until he was sent for"; he did not return until July, when, on "making up his account, he discovered the shortage; large amounts had been deposited in various places as collateral, prior to his departure, and every effort had been made since to discover the holder of the missing bonds, without success." "The coupons," however, "were regularly presented and paid," and it seems impossible to avoid believing that the strenuous efforts made to discover the holder were something like those made by the younger Weller to discover and identify the elder Weller, when engaged in proceedings in contempt of court, in the trial of *Bardell v. Pickwick*.

Senator Pomeroy has made "the explanation" which our Washington correspondent says was looked for with so much curiosity. As might have been expected, it consists of a flat denial of everything, followed by a demand for a "Committee of Investigation"; and a committee has accordingly been appointed. As only seventeen working days of the session remain, and as the witnesses have to be brought from Kansas, and as Mr. Pomeroy returns into private life and thus passes beyond the jurisdiction of the Senate on the 4th of March next, it is pretty certain there will be no investigation whatever, and we greatly fear "the Christian statesman" knows this very well. However, let us be thankful that the rays of his piety will hereafter only illumine the immediate vicinity of his own home.

There has at last been an open breach between Mayor Havemeyer and the Republican Committee apropos of the new charter, and we are sorry to say that it does not seem to have been marked by much discretion on his part. Few thinking men not "inside politics" doubt the soundness of his position, but as long as the Custom-house publicists have the power of doing mischief, it was unwise to break with them openly, except in the last extremity. He chose for it, too, a very unfortunate occasion, viz., a visit of encouragement or condolence paid to him by the chiefs of the "Liberal Republican" party in this city, headed by General John Cochrane. If the General and his coadjutors be any more estimable politicians than Mr. Tom Murphy and his coadjutors, the public has not yet reached any such conclusion. The Mayor's *mot*, however, that the Custom-house publicists "pass the night gambling to cheat each other, and the day intriguing to cheat the public," was, apart from its possible effect on city politics, very happy, and has been received with considerable gusto by the community. Things at this writing go badly with the charter. The Republicans seem steadfast in insisting on making the Mayor share the appointing power with the Board of Aldermen, which will of course make the reform movement an utter sham, and give us two or three years hence the old jobbing.

The miscarriage of the Tweed trial still continues to be a prominent topic of discussion. Everybody agrees that it was the jury that did it, but the question in dispute is how the jury came to be what it was. We are informed that the bad characters on the jury were challenged by the prosecution, but the challenges, under the present law, being passed on by triers, and not as in the United States Courts by the judge, they failed. The panel for the Tweed trial, too, was only drawn the day before the opening, and not, as is the ordinary panel, fourteen days before, so that there was no time for enquiry as to the persons found on it. It is alleged that the Sheriff summoned only the bad characters, and failed to summon most of

the good ones, but it appears that the "bummer" who served was never summoned at all, but came to court of his own accord. The form the charge against Douglas Taylor, the Commissioner of Jurors, takes is, that although his duty is simply to make up the list of persons liable to jury duty and pass it to the Sheriff, nevertheless, as he has discretion in the matter of selection, he corruptly put on four or five thousand say of the class known to be favorable to Tweed, thus creating a probability that ten or more of them would turn up on every panel of one hundred. We see the Commissioner threatens to meet this charge by a prosecution, and we think he ought to do so. A man in his position cannot afford to lie quiet under suspicion of this kind. Tweed will be retried again before long, and we trust with greater precautions as to the jury. Although the penalty is only one year's imprisonment and a small fine, by multiplying the indictments the old "Boss" can be shut up for a good part of the remainder of his life.

The great strike in South Wales and the Russian advance in Central Asia are the two most prominent topics of English news. The strike continues, and is likely to continue, neither side showing the slightest sign of yielding. The colliers who are striking under the orders of their union enjoy the great advantage of having only 10,000 men to support, while keeping 60,000 more iron-workers out of work also. The iron-masters have thus far had the advantage in argument, as they have been able to show that they were only receiving nine pounds a ton for iron when the men thought they were receiving twelve pounds ten shillings; but the men met this by the declaration that their profits were nevertheless large enough to permit the payment of the old rates of wages, and that, at all events, this was a good opportunity to settle all questions in dispute between them and their employers. They desire, in particular, either arbitration or co-operative partnerships; that is, a concession to the workmen of a share in the profits. The masters, however, refuse resolutely to concede either demand, and their objections have been put forward with considerable force by Mr. Laing, a well-known authority. He cites two cases to illustrate the difficulties of any such arrangement. One is the Brighton Railroad, which for years paid 6 per cent. dividend, out of which arbitrators would probably have ordered 1 per cent. to be divided between capital and labor as "extra profits." It was discovered, however, that the dividends were really paid out of the capital, and during the ensuing four years there were no dividends, or only about one-half of one per cent. During all the time, however, the employees received the highest rates of wages. The second is the case of a Welsh iron company, a concern which for several years was worked at a loss, and ruined two sets of proprietors; the third has made it pay; but during all this time great buildings and machinery were put up, and the men were paid high wages—the difficulties and losses of the capitalists in no way affecting them. And now comes the most striking part of his story, which is worth the serious attention of all who are interested in the labor problem. When the price of iron rose, wages had to be raised 30 per cent., and the company were making great exertions to finish contracts taken at the old rates, so as to be able to take work at the advanced prices. For these two reasons, it was of the last importance to them to increase their production. But the effect of the advance of wages was to diminish production. The more the men received, the less they worked, so that the yield of the mine actually fell off from 44,000 tons a year to 36,000, while the interest on capital and the cost of machinery and horses and the rent and salaries remained the same.

About the Russian difficulty in Central Asia but little as yet is positively known. Count Shuvaloff has returned from St. Petersburg, after, it is said, a "friendly interchange of views," but without inducing the British Minister to depart from his position. What this position is has not been explicitly stated, but it would appear to be an expression of determination to maintain at all hazards the independence of Afghanistan and Persia. To make

this effective, however, the Afghan frontier on the north has to be defined, and this will be the point on which there will be difficulty, if any arises. Afghanistan has not hitherto had any northern frontier, but has been separated from the khanates by a sort of debatable land or march in which nobody ruled, and caravans provided for their own protection. An alarm was raised by the English press a few weeks ago by the announcement that a secret treaty had been concluded between Persia and Russia, by which Russia had been allowed to erect a fortress on the Attrak, in Khorassan, on Persian soil. The Persian Ambassador writes to the *London Times* denying the existence of any such treaty, and the *Pall Mall Gazette* asks how then the existence of the fort is accounted for. The importance of this matter is due to the fact that in the opinion of many it is not by way of Afghanistan and the mountains that British India has reason to fear the Russian advance, but through Persia and down the Gulf, which, however, appears tolerably wild. It would seem that the British would be well satisfied if Russia would take the Amu River as her northern frontier, which she would perhaps be disposed to do as far as it runs west, but not beyond the northern bend at Kilif. The Russian press has been ordered to maintain strict silence on the whole matter, but the decree did not come till it had spoken out its mind, which is bellicose. The expedition beyond Khiva was at the last advices on the point of starting, was to consist of 12,000, in three columns, under the command of General Kauffman, and was made up with great care. This is as large a force as can safely move across the desert. The Khivan cavalry is said to be already in the field engaged in raids.

The Committee of Thirty of the National Assembly have completed their report, and it will be presented to the Assembly by the Duc de Broglie before this reaches our readers. The work of the committee was to define the relations between the Executive and the Chamber, and more particularly to settle the mode in which he should communicate with it. The committee went to work on two projects, one prepared by a sub-committee, the other by a M. Tallon. It is useless now to give the details of the negotiation, for the work of the committee has been largely negotiation with M. Thiers; but the general result is this: The President is to have a modified veto power, which is to enable him to suspend the operation of a law for the period of two months after its passage; he is to have the right to participate in the debates of the Assembly, not simply on bills, as was at first proposed, but on "interpellations," or questions addressed to the ministers by members, and other proceedings relating to subjects of general policy, and the council of ministers is to decide when his presence at the debates is necessary; but the Assembly is to adjourn immediately after hearing him—a provision which he vigorously combated. The parties are agreed as to the necessity of a Second Chamber, but, contrary to M. Thiers' wish, the Committee refused to provide for the creation of one now, or until the present Assembly is about to dissolve—in other words, the subject is remitted to future consideration. The conclusions of the Committee seem to be generally regarded as a break with M. Thiers, and there is a good deal of public excitement. But it is difficult for a dispassionate looker-on to avoid the conclusion that the Assembly is doing about the best thing under the circumstances of the case—that is, by holding on to power, maintaining order, creating little by little the machinery of a regular government, disregarding theories, and refusing, in a word, to commit the future of France to a body of wild theorists, each with a bee in his bonnet, assembled under the name of an "Assemblée Constituante."

In the meantime, the other members of the Assembly are busy forming constitutions. The "projet Tallon" is only one of hundreds. Nearly every member has produced one, which he has printed in pamphlet form and carries in his pocket. Some members produce three or four constitutions a week, which they distribute among their friends. The principal constitutions are those of M.

Passy, the Count de Chambrun, and M. Langlois. The great difficulty with all of them is to provide a Second Chamber. M. Passy gets his Second Chamber by dividing the present Assembly into two parts. The Count de Chambrun simply says that the Second Chamber "shall have power to fill its own vacancies," but does not provide for its birth, and M. Langlois composes it of the defeated candidates at the next general election, which is the most original mode of all. Still another method is suggested in the last *Revue des Deux Mondes*, viz., the election of the Upper House by the proprietors, professional men, merchants, and military and naval officers—the lower one being elected by universal suffrage.

The news from Spain is very important. Amadeus has grown tired of his rôle, and, in spite of all entreaties, has abdicated, the Zorilla Ministry being a little too much for him. What has precipitated his action is the support given by the Ministry to a General Hidalgo, an artillery officer of the radical school, who participated in an insurrection and in the massacre of his comrades in 1866. His antecedents in short are such that no officer of any army in the world would serve under him, and when he was appointed Captain-General of the Basque Provinces last November, the artillery officers protested, and sent in their resignations, but he retired and the storm blew over. The Ministry did not give him up, however, and appointed him recently to another command in Catalonia, whereupon the artillery officers protested and resigned, and the King sided with them, but the Ministers appealed to the Cortes, and obtained a strong vote of confidence. The King not unnaturally regards this determination to disregard his wishes, not on a question of state policy, but with regard to the interests of a simple individual, and this individual a military man guilty of the worst of military offences, as an affront, which if borne quietly would make his position contemptible as well as weak. The Cortes, on the other hand, has probably been more affected by the appearance of insubordination in the army than by any other consideration, for the army is the one power in Spain which has of late held the state together, and if it cannot be depended on to obey orders, there is a good chance of regular anarchy—not the "anarchy" talked of in the newspapers, but the real thing. Nevertheless, it would be hard to say which would be most prejudicial to discipline—Hidalgo's promotion, or the success of the artillery officers in resisting it. In the meantime, the session of the Cortes has been made permanent in order to control events. As we go to press, a dispatch from General Sickles to Secretary Fish announces the nearly unanimous adoption of a republican form of government.

The Liberal party in the Prussian Diet are beginning to discover that, with all the forms of a constitution, they have not yet secured the essence of a parliamentary government; that changes in the Ministry, instead of being made in obedience to the majority in Parliament, and to represent its views, are made in the secret councils of the Ministry itself, to meet the convenience or the wishes of individual members of the Ministry, or at the option of the King; that changes so grave as the transfer of precedence and responsibility from a Liberal to a Conservative leader, and the increase of the Conservative element by the creation of an additional Minister, may be made without so much as feeling the pulse of Parliament, and without any call from either House or from the country—may be concealed from the public for days, and no explanation of their grounds be vouchsafed even in answer to an open interrogation in Parliament itself. Bismarck retires; Von Roon succeeds him; Von Kameke, an officer of Von Roon's type, is created Second Minister of War; Conservatism comes openly to the front, and the only answer that Lasker and other Liberals get to their enquiry as to the motive of these changes and their bearing upon the measures of reform and the relations of Prussia with Germany, is the assurance of Count Eulenburg that Prince Bismarck and Count von Roon have not quarrelled, and that time will show the identity of their policy.

Whatever be the exact meaning of Bismarck's retirement, it appears to be quite certain that the change did not mean any disposition on the part of the King to give way in the contest with the Papacy. This grows more truculent, as far as the civil power is concerned, every day, and is certainly all that Bismarck could wish it or would make it. The Minister of Ecclesiastical Affairs, or, as the French call it, of Public Worship, has introduced two bills into the Lower House, which are enough to make the Pope curse with redoubled energy. Since 1850, boys preparing for the Catholic priesthood have been allowed to receive their education in private schools or seminaries managed by the clergy, and at the university have been kept in ecclesiastical boarding-houses, and pursued their studies under ecclesiastical superintendence, and the examination at the close of the course was in the hands of the bishops. All this will be changed by the new bill. Boys going into the priesthood will have to attend the public schools, and at the university to follow the general course, or, if they live in Catholic colleges, will have to be examined by state officers in the classics, philosophy, history, and natural sciences, before being allowed to take a pastoral charge. But sterner than all are the provisions made to protect the priests thus educated from undue coercion at the hands of the bishop. No priest can be appointed to a charge without the approval of the Government; no priest can retain a clerical office after a civil tribunal has sentenced him to deprivation of it; no priest can be sent by his bishop to any penitentiary in which the penance is anything severer than prayer; and no priest can be detained in any such establishment against his will. If a priest is deposed by his bishop for obeying the civil law, he will have his action at law for redress, and the bishop will be obliged to fill his place with somebody of whom the Government shall approve, within one year, on pain of 1,000 thalers. Moreover, to show that he means fight, Bismarck has written to the *Staats-Anzeiger*, under his own name, informing the public that he has had to expose a nobleman at court for indulging in Ultramontane intrigues.

The order of the Prussian Government prohibiting the publication of the Pope's Allocution in Germany, and confiscating the journals in which a translation appeared, is known to have emanated from the King himself, who could not brook the idea of being accused before his subjects of ignorance, impudence, and infidelity. The personal relations of King William with the Pope had always been of a friendly character, and in former years letters had passed between them in a spirit of good-will. The fierce and coarse denunciations of the Vatican wounded the sensibilities of the Emperor, and hence the order, the effect of which has been to acquaint every reader of a Prussian newspaper with the fact that the Pope had been saying something about the King so very naughty that the King was not willing to have it published, or so very strong that he was afraid to have it come to the knowledge of his subjects. It would be strange if such a prohibition did not stimulate curiosity, and if Romish priests could not find ways enough to elude the censorship in conveying to their flocks the pith of the Allocution in the homeliest German. Had the Allocution been left to the free discussion of the pulpit and the press the pride of the nation might have been roused against this insult to its head, and the Pope have been made to feel the shafts of ridicule, to which he is quite as sensitive as King William is to abuse. But this would argue a measure of freedom in the press for which Prussia is not yet prepared. The prohibition of the German version of the Allocution and the seizure of journals which published it, were covered by acts of Parliament under the provision of the Constitution; and multitudes of intelligent and liberal Prussians regard the daily censorship of the press—every journal being required to submit to the police an early copy of every number—as their own protection against abusive personalities, and the protection of the public from scandals and from spurious and sensational news. In this case, however, the Prussian censor has put a new weapon into the hands of the Pope, and he will strike again where he sees that his blows are felt.

SOME COMPARISONS OF SALARIES.

THE Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives has reported a bill for the increase of certain salaries. These are the President's to \$50,000, the Vice-President's and Secretaries' to \$10,000, the Judges of the Supreme Court to \$10,000, and that of Members of Congress to \$8,000. The proposition is designed to seem fair on its face by being made to look like an even distribution between the three departments of the Government, but a moment's examination will show it to be one of those shallow artifices that so often come up in Congressional legislation.

The only objection that any one ever raises to an ordinary increase of salaries is that it will to that extent deplete the Treasury. Let us now see to what extent this proposed distribution of justice or generosity will affect the Treasury. The account will stand thus:

For nine Executive Officers, \$41,000 per annum.

For nine Judicial Officers, \$18,000 per annum.

For 367 Members and Delegates, \$1,101,000 per annum.

Does this device really explain the unprecedented alacrity with which the House abolished the franking privilege? Is it a little bill to be paid for that isolated item of honest legislation?

An increase of Congressional pay brought forward at a proper time and kept within due proportions, very few persons who know anything about the expenses of living in great cities will object to; but we shall now endeavor to show that this proposed increase made at this time is beyond any decent approximation to what is reasonable, and that if the power of Congressmen to increase their own pay is allowed to run on unchecked, it will grow from a national scandal into a national danger.

The Constitution invests Congress with unlimited power to fix the pay of its members, or, to state the case more bluntly, gives the members unlimited power to fix their own pay. If we were remaking the Constitution now, we should in all likelihood limit this power in some way; but at the time the Constitution was made, such a limitation was deemed and was, in fact, altogether needless. The members of the First Congress, controlled and led by members of the Convention, spoke of the duty of establishing their own compensation as a most delicate and even painful duty. When they had enacted laws for the organization of the Executive Departments, the collection of the revenue, the government of the Northwest Territory, the registration of vessels, and had substantially agreed upon the well-known judiciary act, the amendments to the Constitution, and the pay of everybody else, they fixed their own modest compensation at \$6 a day. We use the term "modest," not in relation to the value of \$6 a day in these times, but in comparison with every other salary which the First Congress established. There was a sharp debate upon motion to reduce the amount to \$5, and the committee which reported in favor of \$6 explained that they had ascertained the pay allowed by the States to their delegates in the Confederate Congress, and had "struck an average," which was about \$5 50, and taken it as their criterion. When the bill went to the Senate an amendment was made in it allowing senators \$7. But so scrupulous were the men of that day in legislation which concerned themselves, that it was provided that this discriminating dollar a day should not begin until after the expiration of six years, that is to say, until the term of every senator who voted upon it should have expired.

What, then, was the pay which our first legislators assigned to themselves—which must be taken as the unit of comparison for all the other salaries that they established, and for all the changes that have been made since? It was \$6 a day (without the franking privilege) for the three most laborious and arduous sessions that have ever been held, summing up five hundred and twenty days, and giving as a result only \$1,560 a year. But even this result was too large for a precedent; for the First Congress had much more work to do, and of a more perplexing kind than was expected to fall upon its successors. The Second held but two sessions, footing up three hundred and eighteen days, and giving a result of \$954 a

year to its members. The Fifth Congress held three laborious sessions, and advanced some salaries—among others the Comptroller's to \$3,500—and yet the members received but \$1,200 a year. We may therefore conclude that in the First Congress \$1,000 a year was about the estimated average pay of members.

When these men who estimated the value of a Congressman at about \$1,000 a year, and who certainly had sufficient brains to frame intelligible statutes, came to the consideration of other salaries than their own, they showed a statesmanship, a breadth of comprehension, that must make every American who looks back to the past blush anew for the ignorance, demagogism, and moral cowardice that now prevail in Congress. The President's salary, it was said, must be commensurate with the dignity of his high office—no citizen could desire it to be less. The committee charged with the duty of ascertaining the proper amount enquired what had been the expenses of former Presidents of Congress—the position coming nearest in dignity to the new Presidency. It was found that their expenses had varied from \$7,000 to \$13,000 a year. Apparently the style in which they had lived was not thought sufficiently suitable for the President of the United States, and \$20,000, with furniture, servants, horses, carriages, etc., was suggested. The House determined to strike out these perquisites, and then \$30,000 was proposed. This was thought too high, and was reduced to \$25,000, and the furniture already purchased for the use of the President. But the enactment was avowedly an experiment—if the salary was not sufficient, it was to be increased. "No one," it was well said, "knows better how to unite dignity with economy than the illustrious person who is now President." In four years the statute expired, but was then re-enacted, so as to establish the permanent salary of the office.

But it was chiefly on the subject of judicial officers that this early statesmanship was evinced. Elbridge Gerry seemed to anticipate some modern occurrences. "Your legislature may be corrupt," he said, "and your executive aspiring; but a firm, independent judiciary will stop the course of devastation—at least it will shield individuals from rapine and injustice." Some of the remarks incidentally show the moderation of professional incomes in those days, which to a certain extent must have furnished a standard for the judicial salaries. Fisher Ames said that, speaking for the four New England States, \$1,500 a year for the Chief-Justice of the United States "would be an object sufficient to excite the attention of men of the first abilities in those States." Mr. Vining said: "There are many gentlemen in the practice of the law whose abilities command a greater income than \$3,000 per annum; can it be expected that such persons will relinquish their lucrative professions merely for serving the United States?" With such statements as these before them, Congress fixed the salary of the Chief-Justice at \$4,000, and of the Judges at \$3,500—the avowed purpose being to secure the most eminent lawyers by paying more than they could make in their private practice.

Let us now look at the proceedings of the last seven years. In 1855 the salary of the Judges of the Supreme Court was fixed at \$6,000, and in 1856 that of members at \$3,000. Since then Congress have raised their own pay *sixty-six* per cent. (in 1866), and that of the Supreme Court *thirty-three* per cent. (in 1871). The next move proposed by the Judiciary Committee is to increase the former from its present rate *sixty* per cent., and the latter *twenty-five* per cent. We thus have on the one side an advancement at the rate of sixty-six per cent. and sixty per cent. against thirty-three per cent. and twenty-five per cent. How long will it be at this rate before the whole body of three hundred and sixty-seven members and delegates will be receiving higher pay than the Chief-Justice of the United States?

But it is not only the extent of this disproportionate advance and its significant rapidity; the manner of it must also awaken some apprehension. In 1856, the judicial salaries had been first raised, and the measure to increase the pay of Congress was brought forward in a separate bill standing upon its own merits. In 1866,

the measure was sprung upon the public as an amendment to some other bill; it was coupled with some meritorious matter, and it was introduced by a doubly dangerous arrangement in which the two opposing parties nefariously agreed to silence the political press by equally sharing the infamy. The new project is in like manner coupled with a proposition to increase the pay of an officer whose present salary dates back to the first year of the Government, and of judges whose responsibilities exceed those of any other tribunal in the world, but whose pay is about what this city gives to a justice of the peace.

There are two conclusive reasons, if no more, why the pay of Congressmen should never approach the pay of our judges; first, because their great numbers will make the aggregate of high pay a serious drain upon the Treasury; second, because the laws of the United States forbid the judges to engage in other avocations, and require the sacrifice of their entire time. Of members of Congress there is no such exaction. Mr. Dawes keeps open his law-office in Pittsfield, and runs home after adjournment to argue cases. Senator Carpenter receives for a week's work in the Supreme Court as much as the annual pay of each judge who decides his cases. General Butler has brains enough—we have his word for it—to make two or three incomes outside of Congress. Mr. Oakes Ames could win the admiration of his countrymen by building the Pacific Railroad. An increase of Congressional pay may come, but it must come last, and by itself. And if the trick of 1866 be attempted of throwing half of the blame on the Democratic members, we trust it will awaken the public mind to the fact that the party in power is responsible for the legislation of Congress, and that it should never be allowed to transfer that responsibility to the minority.

THE IMBROGLIO IN CENTRAL ASIA.

THE upshot of the negotiations which have been pending for the last three years between Russia and Great Britain seems likely to be that Russia will capture Khiva, and if she evacuates it after having liberated her subjects held in slavery, and exacted proper guarantees against outrages on them in future, England will abstain from remonstrance or interference; but that if Russia should see fit to stay at Khiva, which is not at all unlikely, inasmuch as it is very difficult of access, she will be called on to draw the line which is to mark the limits of her advance, for the present at least, on the south. That she will engage in a conflict with England in India, just now, there is little likelihood. It is with difficulty she can push even 12,000 men over the desert to Khiva, or anywhere south of it. England can meet her with 100,000 men who are longing for active service, and who would have behind them the resources of a vast and populous empire. It is, therefore, most probable that the difficulty about the frontier will be amicably arranged; but the Russian advance in Asia will, nevertheless, continue to be an event of immense importance, and one likely to exert great influence on the whole Mussulman world.

There is probably nothing in modern history more curious and interesting than the part which the populations of the mysterious, and until within the last thirty years little known, table-land on which Russia is now operating have played in the affairs of the more civilized nations around them. Although, properly considered, a vast desert, it appears for two thousand years at least to have been the source from which great swarms of men flowed in every direction. The uneasiness of the German tribes under the Roman Empire, and the impulse which finally carried them over the border, are supposed to have been due to the pressure from behind of the mounted hordes of Central Asia, and in the first historical glimpse we get of the modern world we find the Tartars raiding in every direction in great multitudes. They overwhelmed eastern Europe and pushed across the French frontier in the ninth century, and during the following five centuries they contrived to overrun Russia and Hungary every two or three years in vast hosts. Under Timour they

descended into India, captured Delhi, and founded a Tartar empire, which extended from the frontiers of China to the Mediterranean, and from the Frozen Sea to Cape Comorin, fighting great battles, and suffering tremendous losses, apparently without in the least degree diminishing their resources, either in men, horses, or courage. In fact, combined with the Turks, who are only another branch of the same great family, they may be said to have been for five or six hundred years the scourge and terror of Christendom. They have within the last two centuries been gradually driven back and cooped up by the growth of Western science, and nothing that one now sees, either of them or their country, reveals the secret of the great organizations which conquered under Genghis Khan and his successors. In fact, they, rather than the Jews, constitute the great "Asian mystery."

They did not lose their fanaticism with their aggressive power, however, and the old faith, which underwent obscurity by the conquests of the British in India and the subjection of Stamboul to European influences, continued to burn as brightly as ever at Bokhara and Samarcand. Until within twenty years no infidel could enter those cities, except in disguise or as a slave, without danger to his life; and from this quarter, as well as from Central Arabia, devout Mussulmans have drawn much of the inspiration which has within the present century produced the great Mohammedan revival, of the strength and reality of which there appears no longer to be any doubt. The Russian conquests are mainly interesting to the Western world in view of their probable effects on the progress of this remarkable movement, although it will doubtless have an important influence on trade also, by opening up both new markets and new sources of supply in certain natural products—cotton, for instance.

We gave some account of the Mohammedan revival in India when reviewing Mr. Hunter's book on the troubles in that country, some months ago. There it has given, and continues to give, the Government great anxiety, particularly as it derives a good deal of stimulus from the reduction of the Mussulmans from the position of a ruling caste to one of equality before the law, as well as from the Wahabee crescentade in the beginning of the present century. But it has been going on actively in Turkey also, where it has been fed by a steady flow of Mussulman immigration from the Russian territory both on the shores of the Caspian and of the Black Sea. There is hardly a doubt that the effect of conquest on the people of the three khanates of Central Asia will also be a considerable intensification of faith, and that their subjection to the infidel, by restoring their long-severed communication with the rest of the Mussulman world, will cause a great quickening of zeal through the whole of Islam. The tide has undoubtedly turned in Turkey, in spite of the growth of "modern improvements" at Constantinople and of the waning of the Mussulman population of the European provinces. On the Asiatic side there has been a veritable revival. Within twenty-five years mosques have been built and repaired to an extent unknown for a whole century. The schools established for all denominations have been slowly but steadily monopolized by the Turks; there has been a great diminution of drinking and other infidel practices and a great increase of rigidity on the part of all classes in the observances of the Mussulman ceremonial. Prayers have not for a hundred years been so numerous and punctually attended, nor the Mussulman colleges so crowded with young men. Moreover, the foreigners who swarmed in all branches of the public service almost ever since the beginning of Mahmoud's reforms, have been slowly but surely pushed out, and their places taken by true believers of the ancient race. It has been observed, too, that the old beys and their sons, who built up the Turkish Empire and spread the terror of the crescent up to the walls of Vienna, begin to take service once more in the army. In other words, there are signs, and not a few, that though the Orientals take our machinery and rifles freely enough, they do not take our ideas, and that the East is still nearly as impervious to Western thought as it was when the Romans sought to absorb or assimilate it—when, as the poet says;

"The brooding East with awe beheld
Her impious younger world.
The Roman tempest swell'd and swell'd,
And on her head was hurl'd.

"The East bow'd low before the blast
In patient, deep disdain;
She let the legions thunder past,
And plunged in thought again."

What impression Christendom, with its jangle of contending creeds, and lukewarm and sceptical professors, its confusion of thought and practice on all questions of morality, the total want of stability in all its systems and organizations, and its growing devotion to material ends and aims, can oppose to this revival, remains to be seen. Probably very little. When it worsted the Mussulman before, it worsted him with a faith as fiery as his own, but that contest cannot be fought over again. Islam can never again be a temporal dominion, because science has come to the aid of the infidel; but it may possibly show in its subject state how much it suffered from its temporal successes, and what wonders it can work in adversity. Indeed, it is hard to see with what weapons the Western world can assail a creed which contains nothing but the assertion "that there is no God but God, and that God alone is great," and whose disciples are willing to die for it. There are weak points in Mahomet's history, it is true, but he owes his greatness in the eyes of his followers to his having been chosen to preach the simplest of all forms of theological belief.

INVESTIGATIONS AND INTRIGUES.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 8, 1873.

BUT for Pomeroy's ignominious downfall in Kansas, the last fortnight could scarcely have satisfied the morbid appetite for scandalous revelations which seems to have seized upon political society here. The proceedings of the two Crédit Mobilier Committees were comparatively dull. The refusal of "Joe Stewart" to testify, based upon the plea that an attorney may bribe Congressmen, and then screen himself behind his professional character and "fiduciary capacity," and the failure of the Hon. Job Stevenson, who evidently was in too great a hurry "to catch the Speaker," served indeed to relieve the monotony a little; but Pomeroy was the great feature of the day. His discomfiture was a sweet morsel which everybody enjoyed, except, perhaps, Mr. Harlan and General Howard, who had so emphatically vouched for Mr. Pomeroy as a pure patriot, a Christian statesman, a truly good man, and a self-sacrificing benefactor of the human species. Mr. Harlan still gives vent to his dissatisfaction with this bad world in his paper, describing in articles overflowing with high morality the depraved character of "that man Yorke" who seduced the good Pomeroy to bribe him, and then, as the base instrument of a wicked conspiracy, betrayed the generous confidence of the unsuspecting and much persecuted victim. That there was a "conspiracy" nobody doubts, but it is also thought that such conspiracies are utterly harmless to candidates for the Senate who do not buy votes with bribes; and there is a touch of humor in Pomeroy's case which cannot fail to be appreciated. Such men as Colfax and Patterson are profoundly pitied by almost everybody, and when Gen. Butler, in his brutal way, in debate recently alluded to Mr. Garfield as one of the dead, he only excited the disgust of his hearers, for Butler is certainly not the man to sit in judgment on other people's morality. But when the news arrived that the old bird Pomeroy had gone into a trap which, from his familiar knowledge of such things, he ought to have seen through, there was a broad laugh all over town, and people seemed inclined to congratulate each other on the fact that knaves will sometimes be greater fools than honest men. There is an impression spreading that the hand of fate is upon the rascals, pushing them on with irresistible power to self-destruction. Indeed, the conduct of most of those who are to-day disgraced and ruined men was such as to make one believe that they were not in their senses. Pomeroy went lustily into the bribing business while the investigation of his colleague Caldwell's briberies was going on, and everybody had his eyes wide open; and those who had taken Crédit Mobilier stock, knowing that Oakes Ames had it in his power to expose them, and knowing also that he desired to "let them off" if they only permitted him to do so, annoyed and irritated and drove him with their insulting insinuations and assertions, until finally he was forced in self-defence to bring forward the proof which crushed them. Their worst enemies could not have managed their cases more disastrously for them than they did it themselves. Some of them have at last learned wisdom enough to hold their tongues, but Mr. Colfax

seems resolved to try his fortune once more, while here scarcely anybody doubts that such an attempt will only more deeply involve him. Mr. Pomeroy arrived a few days ago, and shut himself up with his sorrows; but it is announced that he will soon appear in the Senate and "explain everything," a performance which is looked forward to with great curiosity.

It is now rumored that the Senate Committee which investigated the Caldwell Bribery Case will produce two reports, one signed by the majority, headed by Mr. Morton and supported by Mr. Trumbull, in favor of punishing—probably expelling—Caldwell, and a minority report exonerating him, to be championed by Mr. Carpenter, who seems determined to add to the unenviable notoriety he achieved in advocating the admission of Mr. Abbot, of North Carolina, to a seat in the Senate, in spite of the undisputed fact that the latter had received only a minority of the votes in the legislature. The special committee appointed to investigate the charges against senators, based upon the testimony taken by the Crédit Mobilier committees of the House, is not expected to do much. The senators composing it are known as very honorable but mild-tempered gentlemen, who are not likely to be very severe in their treatment of a fellow-senator as long as they can possibly avoid it. The committee was appointed by Senator Anthony, the President *pro tempore* of the Senate, who is believed to be rather averse to harsh proceedings. No report will probably be had until immediately before the expiration of this Congress, when all whose names appeared in the Crédit Mobilier investigation, except Mr. Logan, will escape from the jurisdiction of the Senate, and the matter may be suffered to disappear in the hurly-burly of the last days of the session. The special committee which investigated Mr. Clayton's proceedings in Arkansas remains also mysteriously silent. The Republican majority in the Senate does not appear very eager to vindicate the honor of that body.

The steamship-subsidy jobs are killed, for this season at least. After the defeat of the Australian line in the Senate, it is not likely that another scheme of the same kind will be passed. The chances of the internal improvement jobs, some of which will come up in the House on February 13, when the Committee on Commerce has leave to report, are equally poor. The advocates of the postal-telegraph scheme are also reported to be in a despondent frame of mind, and will probably not attempt to push it now. But all these things are merely adjourned, not given up. They will reappear next winter, when it is expected that the fit of virtue which the Crédit Mobilier investigation has brought forth will have spent itself. But the bill to raise the salaries of the President, the members of the Cabinet, the judges of the Supreme Court, and the members of Congress, which was a few days ago reported by Gen. Butler from the House Committee on the Judiciary, is continually gaining strength. Its advocates count already upon a majority of votes in the House of Representatives. In the Senate the proposition was twice brought forward in a less complete shape by Mr. Hill from Georgia, and was bashfully voted down by large majorities. But it is thought that, when the same thing appears again in the more respectable form of a bill already adopted by the House, the number of senators who will overcome their scruples will not be small. It is very doubtful, however, whether it can pass. If we could have honest legislation at that price, it would be a profitable investment; but to give us that will require other things than a mere raising of salaries. Mr. Sherman's specie payment and free banking bill will come up again on Senator Stevenson's motion to reconsider the vote laying it on the table. That motion will probably carry, and it is then not unlikely that the bill will pass the Senate. The vote, however, will be very close, and nothing can be predicted with certainty. As I am informed, its defeat was not owing to a combination of hostile interests, to which it was ascribed by some newspapers. The strongest "interest," that of the banks, is rather in its favor. But the opposition arose from a general apprehension that the scheme would not only not accomplish the object for which it is professedly designed, but might lead to fluctuations and abuses worse than those under which the business interests of the country are now suffering. Even if the bill should carry in the Senate, it would in all probability fail in the House. There are many who are earnestly in favor of as speedy a return to specie payments as possible, but will not support a plan so uncertain in its effects.

The regular business of the session is so little advanced that it will require an extraordinary effort to dispose of it before the 4th of March. It is said that some members of the House are systematically retarding its progress for the purpose of rendering an extra session necessary. This design is particularly ascribed to a Democratic leader, who thinks that by continuing the investigations now and during the recess the majority party can be severely injured, and to General Butler, who believes things in a favorable condition to defeat Mr. Blaine for the speakership, to get a speaker of his own making, and to establish himself as the leader of the new House of Representatives, the investigations having "killed off" almost all the prominent

men among the old members. I have some reasons for believing that such schemes exist. But it is also certain that a large majority of the Republicans, as well as of the opposition, desire to adjourn on the 4th of March, the former because after the unpleasant experiences of the last two months they want to have some breathing time, and the latter because they think that the situation as it stands is favorable enough, and should be left to develop itself. There seems to be a disinclination on both sides to disturb by partisan demonstrations that sort of good feeling which has sprung from the curious circumstance that, after the opposition had been defeated in the Presidential election, the victorious party began to destroy itself. This circumstance has imparted a peculiarly mild and conciliatory tone to the intercourse of the men who but a few months ago so fiercely assailed one another, and may be of good influence when new ideas come up for discussion. But if an extra session should be called, which, although improbable, is by no means impossible, nobody knows how long it will last, and what may happen before its close.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, January 24, 1873.

THE chief topic of conversation during the last fortnight has been the death of the Emperor Napoleon. On the strength of the good old maxim about speaking no evil of the dead, the papers have, as a rule, said much more in his favor and indulged in much less hostile criticism than would have been thought becoming a fortnight ago. I need not consider the propriety of their conduct, as the whole matter falls rather beyond my province. The same maxim, however, has been invoked in behalf of two Englishmen of mark who have died within the last week. The friends of Dr. Lushington indeed had little cause for appealing to our compassion. He had long outlived all the animosities which may have been provoked by his early career as a strenuous partisan of the old Radicals. Born in the year when England acknowledged the independence of the United States, he was universally respected as a venerable link to a past generation. His last act was to travel from a considerable distance to Oxford in order to record his vote in favor of Dean Stanley's nomination as a select preacher. With him dies the last hope of obtaining any new information as to the history of Lord Byron's domestic difficulties. He might have given important evidence for or against Mrs. Stowe's narrative; and it has been suggested that the death of the persons chiefly interested should have released him from the pledge of secrecy. I, for one, am grateful for his reticence; I fancy that the world can get on pretty well without stirring up the unsavory scandals of the past, however grievous may be the lamentations of Dryasdust. Our other loss makes a more sensible gap to the general public. Lord Lytton died suddenly the other day, and has been the subject of innumerable eulogies from the daily press. Of course such praises are apt to be pitched in too high a key; and yet it is impossible to deny that Lord Lytton was a man of very remarkable and very varied powers. He had the art, whatever it may be, of success. The last illustration of his power is curious. It turns out that he was the author of 'The Coming Race,' a fact which was so carefully concealed that, though I have heard much speculation on the subject, I do not know that I ever heard it given to Lord Lytton. Many authors of reputation would find it a very dangerous experiment to publish their last book anonymously; but Lord Lytton certainly showed, in this instance, that the popularity of his later works was not due to the prestige of his name. And yet, whilst we are all lamenting his loss, and admitting that he fully deserves the honor of a burial in Westminster Abbey, one cannot but feel that there was something hollow in his reputation. He was scarcely one of the writers of whom one could predict with any confidence that they are likely to reach posterity. Amongst his other titles to fame, he was a fairly successful politician, and had a considerable reputation as an orator. I happened to hear what must have been nearly his last performance in that capacity, a speech on the last Reform Bill. The House was crowded and deeply attentive, and everybody came away convinced that we had been listening to an excellent piece of rhetoric. The sentences were admirably polished, and imbued with a certain scholarlike flavor. It was a good set speech, fully realizing one's traditional notions of parliamentary eloquence, and yet, in any higher sense, it was not really a speech at all. Not only did it belong to the species of oratory which never turns a vote—for in that species are certainly included ninety-nine out of a hundred in all the best speeches uttered in Parliament—but it was curiously devoid of any contagious influence. It had the frigidity of a calculated work of art; it had the form but none of the fire of genuine rhetoric; and for all practical purposes we might as well have been listening to an essay from Addison's 'Spectator' read by a well-trained elocutionist. The same defect seems to me to be characteristic of all his productions. They might be used by a judicious lecturer as an excellent illustration of the difference between talent and genius. That he was full of

talent is as undeniable as that he had turned it to the very best account; but I fancy that one might read through all his novels and plays and poems and essays without meeting a single instance of those sudden illuminating flashes of thought which are characteristic of a really great writer. And thus Lord Lytton has of late enjoyed rather an anomalous reputation. His popularity has been very great, and great with a class which aspires to a certain amount of cultivation and of literary taste; but the greater part of his work has already become old-fashioned, and is regarded with considerable indifference by the critics who aspire to be our modern leaders of taste. In short, he is as distinctly below the first rank of our writers as he is above the ordinary run of literary craftsmen. We shall bury him in the Abbey, and compose a good deal of laudatory matter about him, and then, I suppose, we shall gradually settle down to a definite opinion as to his merits. I doubt very much whether, as the *Daily News* of to-day rather doubtfully suggests, he will be placed in different departments of literature beside Macaulay, Dryden, Addison, and Dickens; but, at any rate, he deserves the rare praise of having made the most of his abilities, and if any one values the result more highly than I do, I shall not quarrel with him. Lord Lytton, I may notice, was the contemporary at Cambridge of Sir Alexander Cockburn, both of whom were members of the same small college. A tradition survived there for a long time of his fame as a member of the well-known debating club, the Union, which has listened to the juvenile eloquence of a great many men distinguished in later life. It is customary to ridicule eminence in that arena, and indeed the students themselves generally have a British contempt for premature oratorical fluency. So far, however, as my experience has gone, the indication of talent thus afforded is by no means contemptible. Perhaps in a country where speech-making is more generally valued one might form a different opinion of the significance of the symptoms; but when a young Englishman overcomes his natural shyness sufficiently to talk fluently to an audience of any size, it generally shows that he has in him a good proportion of the essential qualities of vigor and self-assertion.

To turn from such questions, there are just now some serious topics for reflection. A strike is occurring in Wales which promises to take an important place in the history of the long warfare between labor and capital, from the magnitude of the interests involved and the bitterness of the feeling already produced. The iron-workers and colliers have refused to submit to a reduction of the rate of wages. The masters declare that the prices which they at present receive are insufficient to enable them to carry on business at a profit. Thereupon the men demanded an arbitration, and to this the masters have absolutely refused to consent. They say that they are willing to allow of an inspection of their books in order to prove the accuracy of their statements, but they will not, under any circumstances, continue to pay what they have hitherto been paying. The professed willingness to submit to arbitration gives a certain advantage to the men in the controversy. The masters, however, regard this offer as illusory, and believe that the men would repudiate an award unfavorable to their claims. They have firmly made up their minds, at any rate, that they cannot afford a concession, and are clear that no arbitration can convince them that they can afford it. Who is right in the dispute is a matter upon which no outsider can speak with any confidence, and I am profoundly ignorant upon the whole subject. The serious consequences of the warfare now waging are, however, obvious to everybody. The Welsh population had hitherto been rather behind the times, and this is the first case in which their industry has been affected by a strike. A great majority of the workmen do not even as yet belong to the Union, but the Unionists are able to stop the working of the collieries, without which the business cannot be carried on. Meanwhile, the men on strike are supported by the Unionists of the North of England, and the Union seems to be sufficiently prepared to carry on the struggle for a very long time to come. A large population, undeniably dependent upon them, is meanwhile reduced to misery, and there are grievous accounts of the suffering which has already been produced, and which will, of course, grow more intense as the struggle is prolonged. According to the report, most of the men thrown out of employ would be willing to accept the masters' terms, and it is said—I know not with what accuracy—that if the question could be submitted to a ballot to-morrow, there would be a great majority in favor of returning to work. However that may be, the Union succeeds in maintaining its position for the present, and even if it should be beaten in this struggle, it is generally admitted that the effect will be to increase its power in the long run, and induce outsiders to join it in the hopes of a more successful contest at some future time. In short, it seems that we are merely at the beginning of a campaign which will certainly lead to great misery for the present, and which will, in all probability, bring about increased bitterness between classes, and be prolonged for an indefinite period. We have heard so much lately from Mr.

Maudella and others of the marvellous efficacy of arbitration that this result is not a little disappointing. It looks too much as if arbitration were only possible by way of smoothing over little difficulties when both sides are convinced that some compromise is necessary. When either masters or men fairly feel that they have been backed to the wall, and that fighting is a less evil than concession, arbitration has as little influence as it has under similar circumstances in an international difficulty. Meanwhile, the outside public is beginning to realize with unpleasant distinctness that, whilst masters and men are wrangling, consumers are in all cases suffering. When the laborers at the gas-works endeavored to strike the other day, Londoners felt that no possible grievance could justify their being left in the dark; and a dispute which threatens to screw up the price of coals even above the present intolerable level comes home to everybody's hearth. Altogether, I need only say that we are beginning the new year without much promise of an increase of brotherly love.

I will only add that the education quarrel seems to be blazing up more fiercely than ever. Mr. Forster's well-meant compromise between Dissenters and Churchmen shows symptoms of breaking down in every direction. The League, who represent secular education, and the Union, who stand up for the church, are beginning to use very hard language of each other, and there are materials for a very pretty fight. A quaint illustration of the spirit of some of the school boards was afforded at Birmingham the other day, where a board was elected with a small majority of Church of England members. When they had to select teachers, the other members of the board amused themselves by cross-examining the unlucky candidates as to their religious principles. Roman Catholics and Wesleyans took turns in enquiring into the views of the teachers as to their views about the atonement, justification by faith, and other abstruse doctrines, and the result was not particularly edifying or conducive to religious harmony.

EUROPEAN OPINION ON THE DEATH OF NAPOLEON.

PARIS, January 23.

WHEN these lines reach America, the death of Napoleon will have ceased to move Europe as much as it has done during the last few days. I may, therefore, without being accused of want of discretion, and of the sad courtesy which surrounds every tomb, be allowed to make a few remarks on the character of the emotion which this event has produced in Europe. There is a very striking contrast between the attitude of France and that of her ancient allies, England, Italy, etc. The Bonapartist press is very emotional. The *Pays*, the *Ordre*, etc., appear every day surrounded with black lines, and enter into the minutest details concerning Chiselhurst; they are trying to make political capital out of the very event which for the present destroys their hopes; but there is something artificial in this very excess of descriptive power, in this attempt to rebuild a party with the promiscuous names of the Frenchmen who are now in England. The Bonapartists must feel that the Empire is gone with the Emperor, at least for many years; it was not likely that, broken as he was by the most painful illness, unable to show himself on horseback, Napoleon III. would try to make a "return from the Island of Elba," but the great mass of the French people did not know how ill he was. This illness had been very carefully concealed in 1869, when the Emperor had a terrible attack of his malady, and could only preside at the Cabinet Council in his bed. Very few people knew that at that time the Emperor was carried to the Bois de Boulogne and placed with great difficulty on a very quiet horse, in order to pass a great review of the army, which was considered a necessity. The consultation of the doctors which took place some time before the war remained a secret till the last few days. The Emperor was always so quiet, so silent, so sphinx-like that even the visitors who lately saw him at Chiselhurst did not suspect that there was under his increased apathy anything else than the sadness of defeat and exile. He was still in the people's imagination as he had appeared in the old days when he reviewed the Crimean army, or returned with the Italian army. The country could not forgive him the loss of Alsace and Lorraine, nor the humiliation of Sedan; but it cannot be denied that whenever the troubles of France became too acute, when her dissensions seemed too dreadful, when the expected saviour was called in vain, the eyes of many were secretly cast on the exilée of Chiselhurst, who had shown himself able for eighteen years to struggle successfully with the spirit of revolution. The picture of Napoleon III. in various attitudes has never disappeared from the shop windows of Paris. There is in the French popular mind an innate, and what I must suppose a Celtic, disposition to give a legendary form to history, and to be drawn towards excessive misfortune as much as towards excessive prosperity. Napoleon III. had rapidly become legendary after Sedan; the dramatic incidents of his life could not be forgotten, and there was so much in it which seemed like the work of fatality that the people would perhaps have ac-

cepted any new chapter of a book which seemed written by the hand of Destiny. But the book will have no more chapters; the legend of Sedan seems already as distant as the legend of Waterloo. The two Napoleons will meet in the popular imagination, one as silent, as reticent, as melancholy as the other was ardent, fiery, and eloquent, looking like the types of two different races, seeming, however, like the instruments of the same will, both usurpers, both emperors, conquerors, both surrounded with a court of princes and kings, and finally dying on English soil. When France feels uneasy, what help can she expect from the young student of the Woolwich Academy? If the Bonapartists call him Napoleon IV., they only make us think of Napoleon II., who died so young and in exile. Will the hopes of the Bonapartist party gather round the Empress or Prince Napoleon? They are both unpopular. The Empress is justly accused of having for years advocated the war with Prussia, and to have been the soul of the military and anti-liberal party during the latter years of the Empire. Prince Napoleon has a clear intelligence, a very accurate perception of the forces now at work in Europe, and he is handsome and eloquent; but all his gifts seem to be lost in his hands. He stands somewhat in the position of the would-be usurper before the Prince Imperial his cousin; he has allowed his enemies to doubt his personal courage and to accuse him of avarice.

Notwithstanding the assurances of the Bonapartist press and the efforts of the old partisans of the Empire, it seems to me that the death of Napoleon is a crushing blow to their cause. Such is the general impression in France, and this impression might partly explain the apathy of the French public. Indifference is contagious as well as enthusiasm; and even among the Bonapartists there are many who only mourn the Emperor in order to pay, as it were, their debts, and who will from this time consider themselves quite free. This is especially true in the army, where the Emperor had won many personal friends by his great courtesy and his almost unbounded generosity.

If we turn to foreign lands, we see Italy officially mourning the Emperor, a subscription raised to place his statue in Milan, the first great Italian town which was delivered by his arms. King Victor Emanuel has sent several of his aids-de-camp to the funeral of the Emperor, who was, as he said himself, his brother in arms. Nothing could be more natural and proper than this conduct. If any country owed a debt of gratitude, it was Italy. He first delivered Lombardy, and he allowed all the terms of his own peace of Villafranca to be successively broken. He was the first instrument of the alliance which allowed Italy to seize on Venetia, even after her own defeats of Custoza and Lissa. The Italians, with their usual caution, have waited, however, before raising him a statue in Milan, till he was in his grave, till he could do no more for or against their cause.

In Roumania there have been also great demonstrations of popular gratitude. Napoleon III. invented, as it were, Roumania after the Crimean war. In the Congress of Paris he advocated the union of the two principalities under one prince. This union only took place afterwards. A young Prince of Hohenzollern is now trying to make a new nation on the banks of the Danube, an attempt which seems somewhat difficult, situated as is this nation between two great and ambitious countries. The peasantry of Roumania is still in a state of barbarism. The inhabitants of the great towns are singularly French in their affinities. Owing to their Latin language, they wear our fashions and mourn our monarchs.

The sensation produced in England by the malady and the death of Napoleon III. is, perhaps, the most difficult to analyze correctly. Before all, it must be said that Napoleon III. was known to be an Anglomaniac. The memories of Waterloo, of Saint Helena, the traditions of the First Empire with regard to England, had not only died out in his heart during his long sojourn in England, but had given place to feelings of deep sympathy. There was nothing of the Corsican in Napoleon III.; his was a slow, solid Dutch nature; he admired power, money, rank; he found himself at home with the lords and with the city men; he lived in the clubs, he liked a run across country, he dressed like an Englishman. Lord Palmerston was the first to perceive how useful Prince Napoleon might become to England; he applauded the coup d'état of the Second Empire. Then came the Crimean war; Kinglake in his History has very well told how much England did at that time for the Empire, if he has said as well how much the Empire did for England. From a purely French point of view, the Crimean war was a mere absurdity; it only served for a time the interests of England. The English alliance became from that time the centre of the Emperor's politics; he always acted with England; during the American war, he went directly against all the traditions and interests of France, and he espoused the hostile feelings of England against the Government of Washington. He imposed the treaty of commerce with England on an unwilling Chamber, and he was probably less influenced in this circumstance by economical principles than by the desire to secure the friendship of

England, and even of the English Radicals. At the time of the great rebellion in India, he allowed the English troops to go across France and to embark at Marseilles, instead of going through the Straits of Gibraltar. There was but a single cloud in this blue sky; after the attempt of Orsini, thirty colonels of the French army signed an address to the Emperor, in which they asked to be led against a nest of political pirates and assassins. The Emperor was contented with this war of words, and consoled himself easily with the momentary retirement of Lord Palmerston, who had proposed a new extradition bill. The volunteer fever was not of long duration, and the English are now fully persuaded that Napoleon had never for a moment dreamed of invading England. They only remember his services; they forget that it was their alliance which first gave the Empire a certain respectability and standing in Europe. They forget that the Emperor had constantly projected the invasion and seizure of Belgium, which would have been a fatal blow to the prestige of England; they forget the Benedetti treaty, which the *Times* first revealed to the world. Ever since the Emperor left captivity and came to England, the English seem to have had no other object than to repay him with their hospitality for the hospitality they received from his hands at the Tuileries. They seemed to remember only in the history of the Second Empire those brilliant fêtes, those theatrical scenes of the Tuileries and the Hôtel de Ville, where the best places were always reserved for those who bore English names. There is, I am afraid, also another feeling visible in the great concert of admiration and almost of adulation which has surrounded the exile of Chiselhurst: a secret contempt for everything which is not English. Would any Englishman not consider the Bonapartist system of government as intolerable in England? Would he not only object to its most cruel practices, but also to its centralization, to the régime of the press, to the tyranny of its prefects? All this, however, seems natural when the scene is in France. The lot of Frenchmen, apparently, is to obey some Bonaparte, as the lot of Britons is to be free.

Correspondence.

MUNICIPAL REFORM IN PHILADELPHIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your notice of the Presidential pardon of James Brown, in the *Nation* of to-day, you remark, "There is reason to believe that the political state of Philadelphia is worse than that of New York in the days of the Ring, and the apathy of the citizens gives reason to fear that it will continue for some time." Will you permit me to make a brief comment on this statement?

That the municipal corruption of Philadelphia is as deep-seated and as all-pervading as that of the Tammany rule in New York will hardly be doubted by any one familiar with the details of our government; but I should regret to be forced to agree with you as to the "apathy" of our citizens. There is with us, as elsewhere, far too little of that healthful and righteous indignation at misgovernment which is the only security for popular institutions, and yet it is growing in a very hopeful way. We cannot, however, look for a revolution so sudden and successful as that which has purged New York—and this for several reasons, besides the more sedate and less impulsive character of our population. Malversation of public moneys with us has not been conducted on that grandly dramatic scale of which the development at once arrested the attention of every taxpayer, and showed even the most unthinking that a very few years more would plunge the whole community into bankruptcy. We have plenty to disgust the thoughtful, but not to startle the careless.

Again, the principal cause which led to the success of Reform in New York was the fact that the Ring was Democratic, while the country at large and the National Administration in particular were Republican. Tammany was the last stronghold of Democracy, and the energy of the great and triumphant Republican party was concentrated upon its overthrow. Moral influences are not to be overlooked in politics, and those influences told fearfully upon the last desperate struggle of Tammany in November; while perhaps even more important was the material assistance derived from the Enforcement Laws in the able and energetic hands of Mr. Davenport. But for the machinery of the United States Government, it is safe to say that Tammany would have counted itself in as it had done more than once before.

In Philadelphia the career of Reform is vastly more arduous because the corruptionists to be reformed are part and parcel—the representatives, indeed—of the great Republican party in a city which, ever since the dark days of the war, has boasted itself as the Gibraltar of loyalty. It is not every

one who has the moral courage to revolt against party dictation when he is told that to secure the local advantage of good government he may be imperiling general principles for which he stood forth so bravely from 1861 to 1865. With civic pride, pardonable if mistaken, we imagine ourselves to have been one of the pillars of the Government during the war, and it is not given to every one to perform the part of Samson Agonistes. Thus the moral influence which in New York was in favor of Reform, in Philadelphia is against it with tenfold strength.

The material influences are even more unfavorable. The National, State, and Local Governments are united; there are no opposing forces to be pitted one against the other. The Democracy is too demoralized and disheartened to count as a political force in such a contest, especially as its local managers are thoroughly distrusted by the more intelligent of the rank and file, and are believed to be in secret league with their ostensible opponents. But, most of all, the machinery of elections is under the complete control of experts as able and unscrupulous as Tammany, with the enormous advantage over Tammany that they likewise control the operation of the Enforcement Laws. That the October election was carried by fraud, in spite of its enormous apparent majorities, I think scarcely admits of a doubt.

I mention these facts to explain the slow progress of Reform with us and the seeming "apathy" of our people. Yet we do not despair. Though God's work will surely be done, we do not intend to sit down and wait for it. We have every reason to hope that the Constitutional Convention now in session will render the task more easy, and give us a fairer vantage ground in our portion of the eternal struggle of Right against Wrong.

Very respectfully,

PHILADELPHIA, Feb. 6, 1873.

Notes.

A. D. F. RANDOLPH & CO. will issue a 'New Cyclopædia of Illustrative Anecdote, Religious and Moral,' condensed; also, a 'Cyclopædia of Missions,' giving a comprehensive view of the missionary field, without regard to sect or party, together with facts, incidents, etc.—The supplement to Mr. Leypoldt's *Publishers' Weekly* of last week contains a useful Alphabetical Reference List of Works recorded in that publication during the past year. It is both an authors' and a subject catalogue.

—In no State do the relations between the State and learned societies seem to be better established than in Wisconsin. To the liberal provisions of its Legislature we owe the sixth volume of the Collections of the State Historical Society, and the first of the Transactions of the Wisconsin Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters. The latter is a volume of 200 pages 8vo, fairly representative in its contents of the Academy's aims. Among the papers of special interest to students we should name the report of the President, Dr. J. W. Hoyt, which, in giving the reasons for the organization of the Academy, makes a pretty thorough survey of "what had previously been done by and in behalf of Wisconsin in the sciences, in the arts, and in letters." This embraces the bibliography of each of these divisions, which will be found useful for reference to all investigators of the history and progress of the Northwest. Prof. W. F. Allen contributes a very clear and instructive article on "The Rural Population as Classified in Domesday Book," with especial regard to the status of the soemen (*sochemanni*), whom he concludes to have been descendants of the Danes. Prof. J. B. Feuling offers some forcible considerations on "The Place of the Indian Languages in the Study of Ethnology." The collections of the Historical Society embrace in the present issue the reports and papers of four years (1869-72), the former being inspiring reading, and calculated to excite envy and emulation in the bosom of most other societies of the same kind. Three papers, "The Northwest in 1817," by Samuel A. Storrow (from a rare pamphlet); "Journal of a Voyage to the Falls of St. Anthony in 1819," by Major Thomas Forsyth; and "Captain Jonathan Carver and Carver's Grant," by Daniel S. Durrie, are of first-rate importance. The pretensions of the false Bourbon and his biographer are amusingly exposed in "Eleazer Williams and the Lost Prince," by Hon. John Y. Smith. It is stated in the 18th Annual Report that "the average increase of the Massachusetts Historical Society, the pioneer institution of the kind in the country, has been 625 volumes, while ours, since its reorganization, has averaged 2,800, and, during the past six years, but little short of 5,000 annually." The 19th Annual Report just issued shows an increase for 1872 of 2,166 volumes and 1,523 documents and pamphlets. Of the former, 404 were newspaper files, making a total number of 2,044, distributed in the three centuries as follows: 54 in the seventeenth, 146 in the eighteenth, and

the remainder in the present century. The library is also strong in containing 369 volumes on genealogy alone; 865 local histories of towns and counties; and 175 local histories of churches. On the 17th and 18th of June next the Society will celebrate at Prairie du Chien the 200th anniversary of the discovery of the Mississippi by Joliet and Marquette.

—The late Matthew F. Maury, formerly Commander in the U. S. Navy, who died on the 1st inst., was first brought prominently into notice as Superintendent of the Naval Observatory at Washington, to which position he was appointed by John Y. Mason, on the completion of the observatory in 1844. Here he devoted himself not to astronomy but to the collection of material for the study of the winds and currents of the ocean. He endeavored, with partial success, to engage the commercial marine, not only of America but of the whole world, in the work of recording systematic observations of ocean meteorology on a uniform plan. The results of these observations were published in successive editions of his 'Sailing Directions,' the eighth and last of which was in two quarto volumes, published in 1858 and 1859, and also in his 'Wind and Current Charts,' which were intended to show at a glance both the currents and the prevailing winds of every part of the ocean. His work was brought to a sudden termination by his desertion to the rebels, on the secession of Virginia, in 1861. The great industry and ability he displayed in organizing the scheme of observations referred to gave him a world-wide reputation, while the number and extent of his publications made him very popular, especially in the South. But he was held in very low esteem by the scientific men of his own country, all affiliation with whom he avoided. With all his native ability, he was entirely deficient not only in education but in scientific training and in elevation of character. He collected facts with great industry and ability, but his explanations of them were faulty, and his theories often fanciful in the extreme. We may cite, by way of example, his doctrine of two winds blowing in different directions at the same time and in the same place, one of them carrying its dust along without any interference from the other, which he stoutly maintained to the last. His labors have added to the knowledge of ocean currents and meteorology, but he is entirely forgotten as a scientific investigator.

—There is an association of ladies in this city, formed only a year ago, for the purpose of visiting the almshouses, hospitals, and other public charitable institutions of the city and State. After a year's weekly inspection of Bellevue Hospital they were so impressed with the abuses, disorders, and neglects produced by the low character of the nurses, who are "all illiterate, some immoral, and others intemperate," that they determined to make an effort to establish a training-school for nurses in connection with the hospital, on the model of those established in England by Miss Nightingale, from which eventually a supply of educated and intelligent nurses might be procured not only for the hospitals but for the sick in private families. In England, the women who have entered this service are mostly drawn from the same class as the "upper servants," but the ladies here believe they can get their recruits from women of a higher grade—from "the large class of conscientious and laborious women whose education and early associations would lead them to aspire to some higher and more thoughtful labor than household service or work in shops—such as the daughters and widows of clergymen, professional men, and farmers throughout New England and the Northern States, who have received the good education of our common schools and academies, and are dependent on their own exertions for support." The Association proposes at first only to undertake the control and nursing of six wards of the Bellevue Hospital, and afterwards to extend its field of operations, and finally hopes to establish a college for the training of nurses, which will issue diplomas to persons whose qualifications have been properly tested. They have had one report made to them on the English training-schools by Dr. Wylie, and they propose to send over their own lady superintendent, to make herself familiar with the details of her work at St. Thomas's Hospital in London, and at the Liverpool Infirmary. They have the cordial co-operation of the medical staff at Bellevue Hospital, and will undoubtedly have that of all the other medical men of the city. The enterprise, which hardly needs a word of commendation, of course needs money. There has to be a home provided for the nurses, and the head nurses who will train "the probationers" will have to be well paid. The Association, therefore, asks \$20,000 of the public to start them, and of this they have received already about \$3,000. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Henry G. Stebbins, 50 Exchange Place, or Mrs. Hartman Kuhn, 267 Fifth Avenue. The scheme not only appeals to the charitable and humane, but to all those who feel the great shame and scandal of our time, the corrupt and inefficient administration of our public institutions, and the strong and widespread tendency to slovenly, inadequate, or dishonest work.

—More than a common degree of general interest attaches to the last Annual Reports of the President and Treasurer of Harvard College. The great fire in Boston had for one of its noticeable results a reduction of the University revenues, and to this fact public attention has been widely called by an appeal for aid addressed by the corporation to the friends of American education. In the second place, some remarks of the President in regard to a proposed abolition of compulsory attendance on recitations in the College proper have caused a good deal of newspaper discussion, and the change suggested has been very much criticised, both favorably and unfavorably, but favorably less often than otherwise. So far as we make out from the report before us, the case of those who are friendly to the change is substantially as follows: The average age of the young men admitted to the College is now somewhat above eighteen years, and the age at graduation is consequently between twenty-two and twenty-three. "It is conceivable," says President Eliot, "that young men of eighteen to twenty-two should best be trained to self-control in freedom by letting them taste freedom and responsibility within the well-guarded enclosure of college life, where mistakes may be remedied and faults may be cured, where forgiveness is always easy and repentance never comes too late." And he adds that, "whenever it appears that a college rule or method, of general application, is persevered in only for the sake of the least promising and worthy students, there is good ground to suspect that that rule or method has been outgrown." The report does not say so—for the reason, as we suppose, that nothing has yet been definitely settled in the matter—but, judging from some of the newspaper statements and argumentation, the practical working of the new plan, if adopted, will be that the recitation-rooms will be regularly open, and instruction from the teachers will be regularly obtainable by such pupils as may prefer the old method of study; but that such pupils as prefer to pursue their required studies by themselves, with the help of a tutor of their own selection, will be allowed to do so, and to absent themselves from the class-rooms and prepare themselves for the examinations in their own way. A complete abolition of all possibilities of instruction by means of recitations we do not understand to be intended; an abstinence, permitted by the Faculty, if the student chooses to run the risk of getting up his subjects after his own fashion, we take to be the whole meaning of the change proposed.

—By those persons who are unfriendly to the new movement numerous objections are urged, some of which are reducible to the time-honored principle of "*nolumus mutare leges*," while others are more specific—as, for instance, it is objected that the moral training of the undergraduates in habits of regularity and order is a main end of the college course, and that this end is better subserved by the old system than it can possibly be by the system suggested. To the more general objection the Report makes an anticipatory reply by setting forth a probable good to be got from the change, saying that it is reasonable to expect in the undergraduates, when they are freed from the compulsion of attending upon recitations, lectures, and religious exercises, less of a "certain schoolboy spirit which is not found in the professional schools," where attendance is optional. An improvement in this respect would be a great improvement, and one well worth trying to secure. As for the specific objection above mentioned, experience will be necessary before the question of the relative moral salutariness of the two systems can be settled. That the old system, however, has been a highly salutary system it is easier, we suspect, to say than to prove. The Report makes, as regards this point, a distinction between former generations of undergraduates, of an average age of fourteen and fifteen years at the time of admission, and the older undergraduates of the present day, and it is a distinction which no doubt should be borne in mind, whatever may have been the history of recent classes working under the compulsory plan. Another specific objection to President Eliot's scheme, and one which is urged by President McCosh of Princeton, is that it will most likely lead to "cram"—that is to say, to monthly and bimonthly cram, as distinguished from daily cram on the one hand, and on the other from the patient and thorough mastering of text-books. It is an objection which calls for consideration, and much consideration, and which may probably at last be found to call for nothing less than a careful consideration of two very different schemes of college life, and two almost contradictory notions of what should be the student's relation to the seat of learning at which he is resident. It is not an easy question; perhaps not a question which any one of our colleges can settle for any other; and profitable as any discussion of it might be, we dare say a year or two of carefully limited practical experiment may be, of all discussions, the very best and most conclusive. Instructors might pray, we should think, that the event might be prosperous.

—We note that in pursuance of the determination that every degree conferred by the University shall have "a serious meaning and a real value,"

the Academic Council—a body composed of the professors and assistant professors of all the faculties—will hereafter confer the three degrees of Master of Arts, Doctor of Philosophy, and Doctor of Science, in accordance with a scheme established last year, and which in its main features is as follows: Any Bachelor of Arts graduated at Harvard College may obtain a doctorate of philosophy by pursuing at Harvard University for two years a course of liberal study (approved by the Council) in philology, or philosophy, or history, or political science, or mathematics, or physics, or natural history; provided that the applicant shall have presented a satisfactory thesis on his chosen subject, or some branch of it, and shall have passed a thorough examination. Other Bachelors of Arts than Harvard men must satisfy the Harvard Faculty, by examination or otherwise, that their degree of Bachelor is a true equivalent for the same degree given at Harvard. And in the case of Harvard men, the Academic Council will, in its discretion, dispense them wholly or in part from residence at the University. The Doctorate of Science is to be given on much the same terms, relatively. The intending doctor of science must be a bachelor of science; must have pursued during three years a course (approved) of scientific study embracing at least two subjects, and have passed an examination upon them, showing in one of the subjects special attainments; and, finally, must have made some contribution to science, or some special scientific investigation. But if a man is a bachelor both of arts and of science of Harvard University, his course of study need be but two years long—the other requirements remaining the same, we suppose, in his case as in that of others. For obtaining the degree of Master of Arts there is requisite for bachelors of arts, or of law, or of divinity, one year's course (approved) of liberal study in law, or in theology, or in some other branch of liberal learning. This, it will be seen, is the extension to applicants for these higher degrees of the same system which has been applied to the applicants for bachelorships. And, apparently, while it is not different in *genere* it will be a system much severer in *specie* than our colleges and universities have hitherto known.

—The scientific activity of Harvard College, aside from monographs that professors and students from time to time publish, is perhaps best represented by the 'Illustrated Catalogue of the Museum of Comparative Zoology.' Of this, begun in 1835, seven numbers have appeared: I. Ophiuridæ and Astrophytidæ. By Theodore Lyman. 1835. II. North American Acalephæ. By Alexander Agassiz. 1835. III. Monograph of the North American Astaciæ. By Hermann A. Hagen. 1870. IV. Deep-sea Corals. By L. F. de Pourtalès. 1871. V. The Immature State of the Odonata; Part I. Sub-family Gomphina. By Louis Cabot. 1872. VI. Supplement to the Ophiuridæ and Astrophytidæ. By Theodore Lyman. 1871. VII. Revision of the Echini. By Alexander Agassiz. 1872. In No. VII. Prof. Alexander Agassiz discusses at length the difficult subject of nomenclature alluded to by Mr. Lyman in No. VI. It is to be hoped, judging from the way in which Prof. Agassiz approaches the subject, that science will receive help from the museum in bringing symmetry and reason into the naming of specimens. At present, we should say not only, with Prof. A. Agassiz, that the student engaged in the study and naming of single specimens would find it difficult to rise to general laws, but that the only outcome of his studies would be general desperation. As to the rest, each number (except the second, which has woodcuts by Prof. A. Agassiz's own hand) is illustrated by lithographs, the last containing also photographs of much beauty taken by the Albert-type and Woodbury processes. The numbers differ considerably in size, No. V. containing 17 pp. of text, and No. VII. 378. Each is prefaced by a bibliography of the subject treated. The tendency appears to be, wisely we should think, not to limit the account of specimens to those the museum may have now, but, with an eye to the growth of the museum, to extend the account to the present state of science. The catalogue appears to indicate that solid and faithful work is being done at the museum.

—Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, is one of the great men of history whose fame is rather enhanced than diminished as he comes to be better known. He is ranked with the great conquerors, but he was rather an organizer and a lawgiver than a conqueror; and, after all, his best claims to renown rest upon his constant and successful efforts to advance all the highest interests of humanity. His empire broke to pieces, as he must have known it would; society fell back into anarchy and decay; but he had given it a breathing space of almost fifty years of order and good government. M. Francis Monnier, author of an excellent treatise on the Carolingian epoch, has just published a thin book entitled 'Charlemagne Législateur,' devoted to elucidating that side of this great man which is, perhaps, least appreciated. It is written in graphic style, and at the same time incorporates the results of careful study of the original documents, in some points differing from the views of the best German authorities. A valuable special feature is the description of the provinces of the Missi Dominici.

—The literature relating to the Creole dialect is now voluminous enough to make the study of it both interesting and profitable, and it may be worth while to enumerate the principal publications on this subject. 'The Theory and Practice of Creole Grammar' by J. J. Thomas (Port of Spain, Trinidad, 1869); an essay on the 'Philology of the Creole Dialect' by the same, of which extracts were given in *Trübner's Literary Record* for December 31, 1870; 'Guide to Hayti,' by James Redpath (Boston, 1861); 'Slave Songs of the United States,' Creole of Louisiana (New York, 1867); an article in the *Athenæum* of December 31, 1870, on the dialect of Mauritius; and 'L'Histoire de Cayenne et la Grammaire Créole,' by M. de Saint-Quentin. (1872?)—these works and articles, to which we may perhaps add our own notes in Nos. 240 and 293 of the *Nation*, cover nearly the whole field. The Guiana Dialect, described by M. de Saint-Quentin, arose originally from the intercourse between the French Colonists, their negro slaves, and the more or less subject natives (Galibis), whose contribution to the Creole was the names of plants, animals, and implements peculiar to the country. Other Indians, fleeing from the hard servitude of the Portuguese settlements on the Amazon, brought with them a large number of expressions derived from their late masters; and here and there occur a few words traceable to contact with vessels from England, Holland, and the South of France, like *chout*, palatable (Eng. sweet), *nomsék*, namesake. Among the phonetic changes, we recognize the customary Creole elision of *r*, and the fusion of the definite article with the noun, as in *lapôte* (porte); and *u* becomes *i*, as in *larim* (rhume), *diveen* (du vin), with which compare *dilo* (de l'eau). Where in Trinidad they say *moîn ea manger* (I am eating), in Guiana they say *mo ka [ca] mangé [manger]*—with only a difference in the pronoun, and that but slight. In like manner the imperfect is formed with *té* (*était*) in both countries. "Talheure [toute à l'heure] mo vini," Mauritian for I shall come, contrasts with "mo oua [qu. va?] manger," I shall eat, in Guiana. All words are invariable, unless we except the article *la* sing. *la* plur., which stands always after the word it determines, and sometimes at the end of a phrase. The genitive may be expressed by *di*, but this is habitually neglected. The second person of the pronoun is *tu* as in Mauritian, or *ou* (Maur. *vous*), and *zot* (*vous autres*). The relative word is *ki*. *Que* after the comparative is expressed by *passé*. The superlative is often formed by mere repetition, as *louen, louen, louen*, etc., for *très-loin*. (See the cover of No. 623 of *Le Tour du Monde*, December 14, 1872.)

—A paper read at a conference of missionaries of the Rhenish Missionary Society in Hongkong last summer by Ernst Faber, one of their number, has since been printed there in a pamphlet of 74 pages, with the title 'Lehrbegriff des Confucius.' It is an attempt, the first of the kind, to digest into a system the teachings of Confucius as they appear in the 'Analects,' 'The Great Learning,' and 'The Doctrine of the Mean.' The pamphlet contains a very full collection of extracts, which are given in a simple translation or paraphrase, followed in most cases by the original Chinese text, but with little additional discussion or comment. In a purely philosophical point of view the result is not very satisfactory. Confucius was too practical in the constitution of his mind and in his aim to make it possible, even if his teachings were more fully reported to us than they are, to construct out of them a well-developed system. As an analytical concordance, however, of his views on ethical subjects, the pamphlet will be found very convenient. To place, as Mr. Faber has done, 'The Great Learning' and 'The Doctrine of the Mean' as sources of authority on a level with the 'Analects' is an error, though fortunately, with his treatment of the subject, not a serious one. The nearer approach to a systematic form into which the former have been cast is the work not of the master, but of his disciples. The 'Analects' are the 'Memorabilia' of Confucius, the uncolored report of his sayings and doings. Mr. Faber is usually just to Confucius, but not always. In the closing summary of the errors and defects of his teaching, he finds him guilty of untruthfulness on quite insufficient evidence. Among the cases cited in proof, the only one worthy even of a moment's consideration is that quoted also by Dr. Legge with like disapproval, where Confucius excused himself from receiving an unwelcome visitor on the ground that he was sick. But the example of Confucius, we venture to say, will be quite harmless if only copied in full, for as the messenger was leaving the door, Confucius, to leave him in no doubt as to the real motive of the refusal, took a musical instrument, and sang to it. On the other hand, the sincerity and truthfulness on which Confucius elsewhere so strongly insists, e.g., 'Analects' ii. 22, "I do not know how a man without truthfulness is to get on" (Dr. Legge's translation), Mr. Faber makes to be only confidence or faith in others (*Vertrauen, Glauwen*), which though a frequent meaning of the Chinese word here used is certainly not its sense in this and other similar passages. Mr. Faber in his preface informs us that he has nearly ready in manuscript a translation, with introduction and commentary, of the works of the two leading Taoist philosophers of the fourth century B.C., Lieh Yu-K'au and Chwang Chau, which

he pronounces the best philosophical works in the Chinese language. They have never before been translated, and though possibly not quite deserving of the praise here given them, we hope that some patron may be found generous enough to assume the expense of publication.

AMERICAN ORATORIOS.*

THE appearance of two new works by American composers, both highly cultivated musicians, and both young men from whom much more may be expected, is an event of some significance. True, they do not enter fully into the domain of absolute music, the symphony, but content themselves with the comparatively limited conditions of the oratorio—a form of music in which the chorus is everything, and the nature of the text confines the composer to a narrow, emotional range. The oratorio, or sacred cantata, is for the present the only available sphere for the development of the American composer, for the public is not yet far enough advanced to understand music not explained by words; and, at the same time, the composers themselves have not had the elementary training, especially the unconscious absorption of a musical spirit from a surrounding musical atmosphere, in childhood, which would fit them to give their germinal ideas an easy development in the form of the symphony. The two composers with whose works we have at present to do have the rare merit of being accomplished scholars in church-music, and therefore familiar with all the best work yet done in this school.

No one can turn over the pages of Mr. Paine's 'St. Peter' and not see everywhere the work of an excellent musician. It is without doubt the most important musical work yet produced in this country. Nevertheless, one must be very much in love with Bach, and very little influenced by the modern taste for lyric forms, not to find a certain dryness in 'St. Peter.' The real false step in the book, it appears to us, is the text—the libretto. It ought to be mere truism to say that the first essential quality of text for musical illustration is *emotion*. Music is emotional if it is music. True, a Schubert or Mozart can write tunes for any words, however matter-of-fact they may be. But modern taste requires of vocal music something more than mere melody; it imperatively demands a true interpretation of the dramatic element in the text. This, in its fullest element, one finds in the admirable little songs by Franz and Robert Schumann, and in the operas of Wagner, though with perhaps less regard to the exclusively musical.

The old oratorio was too devotional, too monotonous in its emotional range, to serve as an amusement. It was an act of high religious rapture, a lifting up of the heart to God. One sees this in the 'Passions Music' of Sebastian Bach and the 'Messiah' of Handel. In Haydn's 'Creation,' the "worldly" element, of which Franz Brendel speaks, comes to the front. Here descriptive instrumentation becomes more noticeable, and an air of almost operative tenderness pervades the third part. Mendelssohn gave a fuller "concert" character to the oratorio. In order to relieve the pious monotony, he introduces his choruses of unbelievers who cry to Baal and otherwise disport themselves in an ungodly manner. At the same time the modern orchestra employs its full resources to give a brilliant and characteristic coloring to the whole. This is especially true of the moment when fire descends, and of the chorus, "He watching over Israel," in 'Elijah.' Mendelssohn likewise recognized the need of the lyric element as affording suitable moments of repose. True, Bach had the same idea and relieved the tedium of his oratorios with chorales, in which all the audience joined; as if a modern audience should sing in the three parts of the 'Messiah': "Blow ye the trumpet, blow" (to Lenox), "Rock of Ages, cleft for me" (to Toplady), and "All hail the power of Jesus' name" (to Coronation). Mendelssohn, indeed, introduces chorales far more sparingly than Bach, and that, too, in a purely artistic way, for the audience now "assists" in the French sense only. But the lyric element is far more developed in Mendelssohn's oratorios than in Bach, for we find it in all the airs and most of the concerted pieces. Bach's melodic ideas almost refused to flow into lyric forms. He was not without a sense of dramatic fitness; else he could never have written the remarkably effective "Thunder and Lightning" chorus in the 'Passion Music' according to St. Matthew. But the airs for solo voices are so broken up with unessential ornamentation and long orchestral interludes as to be merely tedious to modern ears accustomed to a more positive passion in singing. These of Bach's are meditations and not airs in the modern sense.

To whatever extent Mendelssohn carried the melodious in his oratorios, it is always chaste and religious in tone—cold if you will—the melody of angels rather than of men and women. This cool and celestial melody is

wanting in Costa's oratorios; here we get a smack of the warm sensuousness of the Italian opera. At the same time we descend from the highly dramatic characters of the 'Messiah' and 'Elijah' to the comparatively commonplace heroes *Eli* and *Naaman*. And with this descent comes a wonderful diminution of the general nobility of the music. Culture and ripe musicianship remain; we have more beautiful vocal effects than the old oratorios attempted, and the rich sensuousness of the modern orchestra in Italian hands. But the old religious fervor has departed. Yet not of oratorio only is this true. Since Beethoven and Schumann all music has become deeper and more poetic. Many of the slow movements in Beethoven's sonatas have a depth of the religious, the "repose which is typical of the Divine Permanence," such as can nowhere be found even in the most solemn moments of Bach and Handel. And Schumann by his short pieces gave an immense enlargement to the emotional scope of instrumental music. So that just as religious art has become more secular, secular art has become more religious (always excepting the Italian opera, which we must be excused for regarding as, in Western parlance, "a gone case").

From this greater richness of modern music arises a new demand upon the text of oratorio. Since the work is no longer an act of devotion but a work of religious art, it must abide the test of a criticism enlightened by all the triumphs of composers of the last hundred years. The religious art of Bach and Handel was the best art their time admitted. It not only had religious fervor, but it had by all odds the most musical inspiration of any contemporary works. It is also instructive to observe that of all the oratorios of that period only the 'Messiah' of Handel can be said to be really alive, in the sense of having the ear of the public. And this has been saved, in our opinion, by the glory of the text, which gave the composer such a wealth of inspiration that in several points he reaches emotional heights otherwise impossible. "Lift up your heads," "Hallelujah," and "Worthy is the Lamb" are the masterpieces which have saved Handel's 'Messiah.' The much bepraised air, "I know that my Redeemer liveth," is far too long and too broken by orchestral interludes. It has been kept alive by the efforts of great singers, who have found in its simplicity and noble melody an opportunity for new triumph. Besides, the musical texture of the 'Messiah' is somewhat monotonous when tried by the standards of modern music. It must travel down the ages in the strength of its sublimity and true nobility, in which sphere it is without a rival. It will be useless to attempt to rival it, for the spirit of the age is different, and the subject itself is the only one admitting the perfection of this particular emotional element.

Our new composers do well, therefore, when they seek more modest flights, and confine themselves more to the common level of human life; for here they are at once within reasonable reach of their abilities, and find scope for the tenderness and poetry now required. The lyric element is one of the most vital. By lyric forms in music are meant those songlike strains where the melodic ideas fall into symmetrical sequences of phrases, exactly as verses fall into stanzas, and where a particular emotional experience finds its full expression in two or three stanzas. The key of the song is its very first line, and this is particularly true of the song in melody. The opening phrase is the pith of the subject, and to this we often and finally return. It admits not of reasoning or dramatic progression, and cares little for mere elegance. It is the instantaneous picture of a moment of the human heart. The song is comprehensible without study. And so the lyric moment in an oratorio is at once the moment of greatest passion to the singer and most complete repose to the listener; complete repose, because the often-returning melodic phrases convey their own interpretation, and the conviction that the singer has at last quit "fooling around" in recitative and settled down to a steady pull at singing, is especially reassuring to the average listener.

A good oratorio text must have dramatic interest and sentiment, and there must be moments of great passion, otherwise there can be no climax. The chorus is of first importance. But to employ a chorus to express words or musical thoughts which could just as well have been done by a single singer is to violate the principle of artistic economy. The chorus text must be such an elevated emotional state as to furnish its own justification for the employment of large resources. In the arias we find room for the tender and poetic, and in the recitatives we look for dramatic painting. The great law of contrast should be observed. A soft piece relieves a loud one; the tender, the bold and heroic. The dramatic and broken are relieved by the lyric; conflicting voices of the individuals are complemented by the union of all—the chorus.

Tried by such tests as these, the libretto of 'St. Peter' is found wanting. It is divided into two parts, and each of these again into two scenes. I. "The Divine Call"; "The Denial and Repentance." II. "The Ascension"; "Pentecost." The first division embraces eight numbers. No. 1, chorus, "The time is fulfilled," Mark i. 15; No. 2 (Rec.), "Now as Jesus walked by the Sea of Galilee," Mark i. 16, 17, 18; No. 3 (Air Sop.), "The

* 'St. Peter': an Oratorio. By John Knowles Paine. Boston: Ditson & Co. 1872.
* The Forty-sixth Psalm. Composed for Chorus, Solos, and Orchestra, by Dudley Buck. Boston: Ditson & Co. 1872.

Spirit of the Lord is upon me," Isaiah lxi. 1, 2; (Rec. tenor) "And he called his disciples together," Luke ix. 1, 2; No. 4 (twelve male voices and choruses), "We go before the face of the Lord," Luke i. 76-79; No. 5 (choral), "How lovely shines the Morning Star!" No. 6 (Rec. and twelve male voices), "And he asked his disciples saying," Matthew xvi. 14-18; No. 7 (Air, bass), "My heart is glad," Psalm xvi. 9-11; No. 8 (chorus), "The church is built upon the foundation of the Apostles and Prophets," Eph. ii. 20, Ps. cxviii. 23. No. 5 is taken from the German, so that the only remaining opportunity for lyric or emotional writing in this part is in the third number, which Mr. Paine has somewhat singularly given to a female voice. The air is a very good one indeed, really lyric, and at the same time not commonplace. The opening chorus is set to a very unpromising text, but the musical result is creditable in a high degree, and, we judge, effective for voices. It works two subjects throughout in a masterly manner. The great objection to the entire last part of the work is the undue length and dryness of the recitatives. The text in this part embraces about forty verses of St. Peter's sermon, delivered on the day of Pentecost. Of this, in a musical point of view, the best we can say is, "warranted evangelical."

It is likely that Mr. Paine's 'St. Peter' would not be entirely available for public performance. But with judicious omissions we see no reason why it may not prove of permanent value. It is very unfortunate that the text did not include words suitable for at least one genuine musical chorus in each part. Whatever we have here we have in spite of the libretto. Nor do we find in this work enough attention to the tender and simply musical for the best impression upon the public; but we do find such a degree of cultivation and high musical intention as to be uncommonly creditable to the composer and American art. And we might properly add further, that we have given way to so long a digression on the matter of the text solely with reference to after-coming composers, who might be in danger of adopting an unsuitable libretto for want of proper instinct or consideration of the disadvantage at which they thereby place themselves with the public. The libretto of 'St. Peter' is probably quite as good as that of 'St. Paul,' or many of those set to music by Handel.

Mr. Buck's Psalm is not an oratorio, yet it is so much allied to one as to be properly noticed under that head. It is divided into seven numbers, which are so diversified in treatment as to afford an agreeable and appropriate variety. Mr. Buck's standpoint of writing is different from Mr. Paine's. The former is more devoted to the dramatic aspect of the text; the latter, to the demands of counterpoint and the Bach principles of writing. Mr. Buck also gives himself up now and then to mere sweetness, quite in the French style. On the whole, he has produced exactly what he set himself to do, namely, a work in oratorio style, long enough for half a programme, and within the ability, with good study, of average singing societies of forty to a hundred members. The dramatic conception of the text is excellent. The form of the music is admirable, and the melodic ideas are judiciously assigned to suitable voices. From a high musical standpoint the work appears to us to be open to the suspicion of crudity, or abruptness, or want of finish. Yet it is very difficult to say exactly why. Perhaps the slight imperfection arises from too strict a following of the Wagner theory of a close dramatic interpretation of the words. In any case, the Psalm is a desirable acquisition to the repertory of choral societies, and to their tender mercies we now dismiss both works.

SOME NEW FRENCH BOOKS.*

IN his latest work, the author of 'Ladislas Bolski' and the 'Revanche de Joseph Noirel' reveals himself in a fresh literary aspect. His new volume of 'Studies in Literature and Art' is made up of essays entitled (1) "A German of the Olden Time"; (2) "A German of To-Day"; (3) "Germany's Militant Poets"; and (4) "Nine Letters on Art." The German of the olden time is Lessing. The German of to-day is Strauss (not to be confounded with the composer of the "Blue Danube"). The militant poets are those of the new German Empire, from Redwitz and Geibel down to the immortality-destined Kutschke, with his

"Was kraucht da in dem Basch herum?
Ich glaub', es ist Napolium."

In this chapter are some pleasant pages on Uhland and the *Geharnischte Sonette* (sonnets in armor) of Rückert, with a glance at the early patriotic poetry of the Liberation war.

Those of our readers who know M. Cherbuliez only as a brilliant novelist

* 'Etudes de Littérature et d'Art, par Victor Cherbuliez.' Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie. New York: F. W. Christern. 1873.
"Alsace, 1871-1872. Par E. About." Paris: Librairie Hachette. New York: F. W. Christern. 1873.
"Vingt Mois de Présidence." Paris: J. Hetzel et Cie. New York: F. W. Christern. 1872.

will be surprised at the extent and solidity of his acquirements in German literature. His 'Lessing' is an admirable study, with incidental criticisms on Goethe, Schiller, Winckelmann, and Voltaire. In discussing the ancient quarrel touching Lessing's estimate of the French dramatic classics, Corneille and Racine, M. Cherbuliez makes it evident that Geneva is nearer to Paris than to Weimar. The German of to-day, Dr. David Strauss, author of the 'Life of Jesus,' is an essay semi-biographical and semi-critical, in which the Doctor's worth is analyzed and appreciated, and some account given of 'Ulrich von Hutten' and his other works. The letters on art afford the writer a field in which his pen has somewhat freer play. The letters on sculpture especially merit attention.

M. Edmond About's last production is what the French would call a *livre de circonstance*, and is mainly interesting for what it tells us concerning its author. We all know how exceedingly clever he is; yet this book will not add to his reputation. Writing from personal observation touching the occupation of a conquered province by a victorious enemy, Edmond About would almost certainly be found keen of observation, picturesque in description, and reasonably well provided with useful information—provided only that the conquered province be not Alsace, and the victorious army other than Prussian.

Born at Dieuze, a small village of Lorraine, and long a resident of Saverne (Alsace), where, as he says, "I have passed fourteen years of my life, written three-fourths of my works, and which is the birthplace of four of my five children," we can well understand how the Prussian invasion affected him personally. In September, 1871, on his return home after the cessation of hostilities, our author finds the country filled with Prussian troops, and the native population in the bitterness of defeat manifesting toward the conquerors all the animosity of actively engendered hatred. He listens to the thousand highly colored stories current concerning Prussian insolence, Prussian vulgarity, Prussian avarice, and Prussian cruelty, which his friends and acquaintances pour into his ears, gives them shape and form in letters to *Le Soir*, and of this staple the work is made up. Had M. About been writing in Poland and Ireland, his knowledge of the world and of mankind would have qualified him to witness calmly the natural resentment of a conquered people, and to eliminate with judgment the exaggerations and inventions springing from the intense hatred of a disarmed population, which in default of swords and guns takes refuge in pens and tongues. But in the case of Alsace—and we make it no reproach to our author—all the circumstances of the case disqualified him from being its historiographer at such a crisis. Cool observation, careful research, or impartial judgment were simply impossibilities to him, and his chapters therefore possess merely the interest of a succession of pictures taken from a single standpoint. We have the animus of the whole work in the dedication (a legacy of hatred): "*A mon fils—Pour qu'il se souvienne.*"

The chapters on Strasbourg, Muhlhouse, Belfort, etc., are filled with details of the organized passive resistance of the Alsatians to the conqueror, which extends, it seems (where a Prussian is concerned), even to the denial on their part of any ability to comprehend or speak the German language. Any one who has ever heard Alsatian French spoken, or read its delicious reproduction in the pages of Balzac, may have some faint idea of the irresistible comicality of hearing an Alsatian refuse to understand a Prussian, with the explanation, in French of formidable accent, "*Moi Français, moi pas savoir Allemand,*" or again, "*Pas pouvoir Allemand*" (*Ich kann nicht Deutsch.*) This is legitimate. So also is this: "We reply to Prussians, who accost us politely in French, with a strict, ceremonious, and special politeness which makes them keep their distance. If they ask for information or one of those slight services that no one can refuse, we respond obligingly, but accept nothing in return—not even a simple 'I thank you.'" This is reported of Saverne, but at Strassburg, About hears stories in which the glacial politeness is totally absent:

"The German who chances in a French shop is exposed to a thousand impertinences—all the keener that they are witty and in good taste. A dealer who is obliged to answer a Prussian, persistently lowers his eyes and fixes his gaze on the stranger's long feet. That is sufficient. Attacked in his weak point, the Prussian hesitates, stammers, and generally rushes out bargainless and furious."

Another:

"A German lady enters a *magasin de nouveautés* to purchase a dress and trimmings. 'You understand,' she remarks, 'I do not wish to look like a Frenchwoman.' She is answered with much politeness: 'Have no fear, madame, it would be impossible to effect that.'"

Yet another:

"The wife of a Prussian functionary coming out of a shop in great agitation meets a friend, and bursts into tears, with 'Oh! this is horrible. I can never exist here. My husband must change his post or resign.' 'What is

the matter?" enquires the friend. "Nothing—everything. I went in there. A pretty, graceful girl of sixteen was waiting on a French lady with the greatest possible politeness. At the sight of me she appeared to grow at least two feet taller—put on the air of an offended queen—turned her head away while listening to me, threw me my purchases as one might pitch a bone to a dog, and pushed my money into the drawer with a piece of paper."

"Voilà comment les Alsaciens vendent aux Allemands," is M. About's somewhat unphilosophical commentary.

But we must do our author the justice to distinguish between the requisitions of journalistic and permanent literature—between the preparation of a serious book and the hurried transcription of a letter amid the excitement of passing events. For the publication of some portion of this work originally in the *feuilleton* of *Le Soir*, M. About was, as our readers may remember, arrested at Saverne, sent under guard to Strassburg, and there imprisoned to await trial by a court-martial order of the Minister of War at Berlin. The crime charged was high treason. This was in September, 1872. The accusation was founded on the *feuilleton* of *Le Soir* of Oct. 26, 1871. How a French subject could be held answerable to a foreign tribunal for an article written and published in France, M. About naturally professed himself unable to understand. He was answered that the tribunal considered the crime as committed wherever the paper was circulated, and *Le Soir* was circulated in Prussian territory. Under the Prussian system, the accuser in this case was not brought personally before the court, which was composed of two civil judges and three military officers, but was tried on written testimony and his own answers to interrogatories propounded by an official nearly equivalent in functions to our judge-advocate. M. About has no words but of praise for the consideration, care, and politeness with which this officer discharged his duties. The accused underwent two interrogatories, the last one terminating in a manner so eminently characteristic of the respective nationalities of prisoner and judge as to merit reproduction.

M. About said in his justification:

"How can I be guilty of treason towards you? I am not of yours. I am your enemy. I hate the conquerors of Lorraine and Alsace. I hate them not only as a citizen, but as an individual. You have annexed my native Lorraine village, which never was German, where no one speaks German but your functionaries. There my father lies buried. His tomb is your property. You have annexed the place of my adoption, Saverne. The cradle of my infants belongs to you! Why, if I were not your enemy, I should be neither a son, a father, nor a man. Put down in the interrogatory, if you please, that I am your enemy!"

"*Natürlich*," replied the judge, with the imperturbable serenity I had already admired, says M. About; and he dictated to the clerk: "I am your enemy. I hate the conquerors of my country."

'*Vingt Mois de Présidence*' is a history of the Government of France, and more especially of the administration of President Thiers, from the 17th of February, 1871, to the end of October, 1872. The work addresses itself mainly to the demonstration of two propositions: First, that the Republic is the solution of the French political problem; and, second, that the administration of President Thiers has been eminently capable and successful. Those observers who have watched with attention the late scenes of the 13th of November, 1872, in the National Assembly, will find special interest in its statements. The book has been attributed to M. Thiers himself. From internal evidence we greatly doubt this, but think that it very likely may have been inspired by him. The author, whoever he may be, professes entire impartiality.

"All," he says, "agree on one point, that for nearly a century the malady from which France suffers is revolutionary in its nature. Are the doctors who have taken their degrees in the Faculty of Authority still convinced, as they were yesterday, that compression is the best method to manage steam? The machine has exploded too often to permit us to believe that the employment of the same processes will not ensure like explosions. We have been subjected to all the varieties of monarchical treatment—the First Empire, traditional monarchy, constitutional monarchy, dictatorship, Second Empire. All these passing governments decreed each in its turn that the era of revolutions was closed, and yet invariably, after the lapse of a few months, each governmental apparatus exploded, leaving the soil covered with its ruins."

"Monarchical régime, if it survives monarchical faith, is order on the surface and revolt at heart—revolt which, one day or other, appears in the form of revolution. Aided by compression, things may go on apparently well for a short time, but, at the moment when least looked for, reality appears, and with its iron hand sweeps away the artificial edifice. All the old processes failing, the most vulgar common sense counsels a different method; instead of compressing, allow expansion; instead of unavailing dykes and dams for a resistless current, give it a canal. The canal of revolution is the Republic."

"I am aware," continues the author, "that the word Republic frightens many good people, and most alarms those who do not know what it is; for the Republic can hardly be said to have experimentally lived in France. Was that terrible epilepsy of 1793 the Republic? In 1848, drawn to and fro by the ambition of pretenders, it was a phantom. The day when the doors of the National Assembly and of France were opened to Louis

Napoleon, the Republic was dead. What we beheld from the 4th of September, 1870, to the 7th of February, 1871, was no more the Republic than it was monarchy; it was the dictatorship of a group, a dictatorship born of a catastrophe. The weakness of the Monarchical party, then, being demonstrated by a shipwreck five times repeated in half a century, let us, once for all, have done with this principle if we desire to have done with revolution."

The writer concludes, of course, for the necessity of adopting the Republic, if the country is to be saved and its government placed on a firm basis. So much for the preface. The remaining two hundred and fifty pages of the work may be looked upon as the administrative and diplomatic history of France down to within a period of now six months. On the 8th of February, 1871, seven hundred and fifty National Representatives of France assembled at the Grand Theatre of Bordeaux—Legitimists, Absolutists, and Moderate Republicans of every hue, Orléanists and Indifferents, and, possibly, some lingering Imperialists. These last soon found their faith sorely tried. On the 1st of March, a member (Bamberger of the Moselle) denounced the name of Napoleon III. as one eternally "nailed to the pillory of history," a sortie followed by immense applause and the appearance of a member "from the depths of the Right," his face as pale as a spectre. This was M. Conti, who had the nerve to ascend the tribune and undertake an apology of Napoleon III. All he gained by it was the immediate passage, amid tumult "*à son comble*," of the proposition of Bethmont, that the misfortunes, defeats, and ruin of the country were caused by the Empire, and that therefore the Empire should be for ever accursed—"l'Empire doit être à jamais maudit."

After successive defeats and the melting away of several armies, soon came the "humiliation suprême" of the entry of the Prussian army into Paris. Every nerve was strained, every device exhausted, to avoid this crowning calamity. But Prussia was inexorable, although this work asserts that, by way of compensation, she gave up Belfort, which was originally included in the cession of Alsace, and also diminished the indemnity by a considerable amount. Then follow the more exciting incidents of Paris and the Commune, and parliamentary discussions on all the great questions which underlie the administration of every modern state—conscription, the army, the navy, commerce, agriculture, national finance, etc., etc.—giving to this brochure, as a book of reference, a decided historical value.

How I Found Livingstone. By Henry M. Stanley. With maps and illustrations after drawings by the author. Published only by subscription. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)—If we may judge by its effect on ourselves, the reading of this book is calculated to win back for Mr. Stanley a good deal of the respect which he had forfeited by his behavior since his return to civilized parts. In straightforward, unaffected narrative, only disfigured by reporters' rhetoric, he describes the intelligent manner in which he prepared himself for the long and toilsome march from the seaboard to the interior; the obstacles, dangers, and common incidents of the route; the happy meeting with Dr. Livingstone; their joint exploration of the north end of Lake Tanganika; their venturesome return through an unexplored country to Unyanyembe; their leave-taking; and the safe arrival of the *Herald* expedition at Zanzibar. There is no effort, on Stanley's part, to make a hero of himself. On the contrary, the reader might even be led to underestimate his courage, forgetting that his was an undertaking in which tact was more essential than daring, and that he showed throughout an exceptional knowledge of human nature, without which he might easily have been foolhardy, but with which he could as easily afford to appear less courageous than he really was. His resolution and his self-reliance never failed him, and undoubtedly he had made up his mind to succeed or perish. No feature of his African mission seems to us more creditable to him than the fact that it was accepted in spite of a personal indifference on his part to Livingstone, whom he had entirely misjudged; and there are no pleasanter passages in his work than those in which, with evident sincerity, he pays a really loving tribute to the character of the veteran explorer as revealed to him most unexpectedly in their four months' intercourse. One perceives that the chill given to this ardent attachment when Stanley was once more in the midst of jealousies and heart-burnings of which Dr. Livingstone was unjustly the object or unconsciously the cause, almost of necessity threw him into an antagonistic frame of mind towards the Doctor's countrymen. This was rather confirmed by the to him amazing conclusion of the Dawson expedition not to proceed any further, on learning what he had achieved; and prejudice gave way to anger when, partly owing to the mystery in which his early movements were shrouded, he found the British public unprepared to believe him. A little more judgment, a little better knowledge of the *Herald's* reputation for sensational journalism, would have enabled him to turn these doubts and suspicions into what they actually were—the highest compliment that could have been paid him. He would thus have spared himself those

exhibitions of bad taste, sensitiveness, and bad breeding which we can now partly forgive to his loyalty to Dr. Livingstone and his employer.

Mr. Stanley's book unquestionably takes rank with those of Burton, Grant, Speke, and all other travellers in the same district of Africa, in so far as it is a truthful and trustworthy account of what he saw, heard, and did. In scientific attainments he was inferior to all his predecessors, in descriptive power as well, though his narrative is anything but dry reading, and contains many excellent descriptions of scenery. He was peculiarly fortunate in several respects. When only a month out from Bagamoyo, he heard authentic news of Livingstone; four months later he was again cheered by similar tidings; and three months later still, on the final march to Ujiji, all doubts were removed of his finding the Doctor if he could reach that place. Had he experienced fewer delays in coming up from the coast, he might have anticipated the latter's arrival, and either turned back in despair or missed him in further searching. He had also the singular felicity, when returning to Bagamoyo, to receive on the way copies of the *Herald* containing his letters forwarded months before. This return trip, we ought to add, was towards the close perhaps even more perilous than the advance had been.

The publishers will permit us to call their attention to the awkward position of the general map of the expedition. Placed in front instead of at the back of the volume, it cannot be consulted without great inconvenience, which leads the reader, or led us at least, to tear it out and spread it near by.

Talk and Travel; or, Two Strings to Your Bow. By Biceps. (London: D. Ogilvy.)—An English traveller, who hunts lions and wild boars, and amuses himself with philology and anthropology, has written a book and printed it under the above title. The "Travel" is in Northern Africa, and will serve as a guide to the sportsman and tourist in Algeria and Tunisia. It certainly gives no very enticing view of the country—wretched quarters, long and fatiguing marches, and little or no large game. The "Talk" is a warm protest against the theories and nomenclature which transform "Englishmen" into "Dutchmen," and "Britons" into "Teutons." He speaks up for the Normans. He thinks that the inhabitants of England at the Norman Conquest were an effete race, who would have come to nothing. Englishmen owe their eminence to their Norman blood. He estimates the accession to the 2,000,000 so-called Saxons to have been 500,000 French—in fact, one quarter, and by far the most intelligent and powerful of the whole population of England; and of the whole population of Great Britain and Ireland he puts the Teutonic element at one quarter only. The organization of church and state, the military spirit and power, the architecture, the literature—all are Norman. The language is mixed. As to the vocabulary, it seems there are 43,500 words in Johnson's Dictionary, and 29,000, more than two-thirds, of them are of Romance origin. As to grammar, the collocation of words, the formation of the plural, gender, comparison, and derivation are either French or half French. So he argues in an off-hand fashion, citing Schlegel, Grimm, Marsh, Thomerel, and a long, and good, and less familiar passage from Hardy's 'Descriptive Catalogue of Materials relating to Great Britain and Ireland.'

He garnishes his statistics and arguments with lively assaults on travelling Teutons who claim the English "*lankritch* as no pedder as *progen Sherman*," and on the "violent Germano-mania (or flunkeyism) of the last thirty years" in England, and especially Mr. Freeman and the *Saturday Review*, as its prominent representatives. Among other things, he gives a specimen vocabulary of the new language, the *lingua Freemannica*, which Englishmen of the old school will now be obliged to study, from which we pick the following: Charlemagne, *Karl the Gross*; A Briton, *A Dutchman*; nearly, *well-nigh*; Popular tradition, *Folk lore*; Anglo-Saxon, *O.E.*; Freeman, *infallible*; everything non-Freemantic, *misleading, confusing, blundering*.

At "well-nigh" the same time with this little book comes a number of the *Saturday Review*, with an article in it on the *Nation's* criticism of Dr. Morris's use of the phrase *Old England*, which is full of misapprehensions that we should like to set right. But what can be said to a reviewer who fathers views upon us which are just opposite to those we express; who applauds a classification of English authors which unites Chaucer with Beowulf, and separates him from Spenser; who thinks that the current word in America for *Englishman* is "*Britisher*," and that "commencement orations" are speeches of the Pilgrim Fathers; and when the *Nation* says that we may still speak of both races of our ancestors (Saxons and Normans) under the names which have so long resounded in Fourth-of-July orations, takes it all gravely, and enlarges at learned length on the political reasons which lead us to ban the word *English* and praise *Anglo-Saxon*; who is not content with rebuking the *Nation* for using the words *Anglo-*

Saxon just as all the rest of mankind do, and have done for generations, but ventures to suggest that we say *commencement* when we mean *beginning*—e.g., Harvard commencements, for Harvard beginnings—and that we have the elements of the Anglo-Saxon question still to learn? Perhaps 'Talk and Travel' gives him all the answer he deserves. Perhaps it might do him good to read and digest the remarks in the last number of *Kuhn's Zeitschrift* to the effect that there is little study of Anglo-Saxon in England, and what little there is is unscientific, and that America affords a cheering contrast in both particulars. This is an authority surely which all "Germano-maniacs" are bound to respect. Let this be followed by a study of the parable in the *Hitopadesa*, or *Hending*, or elsewhere, which tells how a certain foreman of a jury made his complaint of the eleven obstinate jurymen who were standing out against him.

History of Lexington, Kentucky: Its Early Annals and Recent Progress. By George W. Ranck. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1872.)—It is a hundred and sixty years since Lexington, Mass., was set apart from Cambridge and incorporated under its present name. Five years ago its historian, Hudson, could reckon twenty-two counties, cities, and towns "scattered over every section of our wide, extended country, including the Pacific States," which had been called after it on account of its Revolutionary fame. Of these, Lexington, Kentucky, was the earliest; and it is the only one which has acquired national distinction, if we except the Missouri town whose capture by the Confederate General Price in 1861 was an event of some significance and great notoriety at the time. Except in name, however, there is no relationship between the Lexington of April 19, 1775, and the Blue Grass Lexington. The latter was essentially a Virginian settlement, and its true parentage was shown when the conflict of Puritan and "First Family" principles compelled it to take sides with one or the other. Its allegiance was divided between the Confederacy and the Union, and its citizens enlisted in both armies; but this was a Border State necessity, and we judge from Mr. Ranck's discreet allusions to the subject that its Confederate contingent was the darling one, and that it is still fashionable in Lexington to mourn over the "lost cause." We are not aware that the Massachusetts volunteers actually faced and fought their Kentucky namesakes on the field of battle, though this would doubtless have been peculiarly agreeable to the latter. Their opposition, however, was none the less real.

Mr. Ranck has adopted the plan of treating each year's events by themselves, skipping from one topic to another without warning or any mark of discrimination, and sometimes with very ludicrous effect. The biographies accordingly are scattered throughout the book, which thus loses what might have been a fairly imposing feature. For we have glimpses here of the Marshalls, the Todds, the Breckinridges, and the Clays; of the Gratzes and Gratz Browns; of Amos Kendall; of Jeff. Davis, who was educated at the Transylvania University; of good Bishop Asbury and Peter Cartwright; of James Wilkinson, once the General of the United States Army, to whose neglected grave in Mexico the Secretary of War has just called the attention of Congress; of Daniel Boone, Robert Patterson, and other pioneers—not to speak of a large number of eminent lawyers, politicians, and inventors such as any town historian might rejoice in. Next after the late Horace Greeley, Henry Clay had no worshippers more devoted than his neighbors, the people of Lexington. They carried their reverence so far that, in 1845, instead of mobbing his kinsman, Cassius M. (then editing an anti-slavery paper called the *True American*), gutting his home, tar-and-feathering him, and throwing his press and materials into the Elkhorn, they appointed a committee "to safely box up the articles and ship them to Cincinnati, after which Mr. Clay was notified of the address of the house to which they had been sent subject to his order, with all charges and expenses paid." They even cheerfully paid \$2,500 additional to indemnify two of the committee, against whom Mr. Clay subsequently obtained judgment for their forbearing and courteous treatment of his property.

It would be easy to make interesting extracts from Mr. Ranck's ample store of anecdote and tradition, did space permit. In these days of *Crédit Mobilier*, however, we must make room for the following example of the delicacy which, according to Messrs. Oakes Ames, Bingham, Brooks, and Kelley, it is absurd in a public officer to profess:

"Commissioners were appointed [1792] by the House of Representatives to select a permanent seat of government, then a matter of great jealousy and contention between the people of the opposite sides of the Kentucky River. Five gentlemen were chosen, any three of whom might fix upon a location. Their names were Robert Todd, of Fayette; John Edwards and John Allen, of Bourbon; Henry Lee, of Mason; and Thos. Kenneday, of Madison. The commissioners met soon after their appointment, when it was found that two were in favor of Frankfort, and two for Lexington. The matter was decided by the vote of General Robert Todd for Frankfort.

Why General Todd decided against his own town has long been a mystery to many, but it is known that he regarded his position as a delicate one, inasmuch as he owned a large amount of land in this vicinity, and feared if he gave his vote for his own place of residence, it might be attributed to motives of personal interest" (p. 175).

Journalism in the United States from 1690 to 1872. By Frederic Hudson. (New York: Harpers, 1873.)—The subject of this book is so important that the book itself deserves attention, but we cannot say that Mr. Hudson has succeeded in accomplishing the task set before him. We have as the result of his labors a thick volume stuffed with every imaginable kind of newspaper history, gossip, and anecdote. In such a collection there is of course a large amount of valuable information, but it has been collected and put together in such a way as to leave the history of Journalism in the United States still unwritten. Some idea of Mr. Hudson's style may be gathered from his Introduction, in which he has brought together a number of quotations from various authors bearing directly or remotely on journalism. In this collection we find the quotation, "Give me the liberty to know, to alter (*sic*), and to argue, freely, according to conscience, above all liberties," attributed to "John Milton, the Cromwellian Editor." The lines

" 'Tis pleasant, sure, to see one's name in print;
A book's a book, although there's nothing in't,"

have given them for an author "Byron after the newspaper critics." "That mine adversary had written a book" is quoted from "Newspaper critic after Job"; Puck is referred to as the "first telegraph operator," and we find that the verse

"How doth the little busy bee," etc.,

is taken from "Isaac Watts's Eulogy on newspaper reporters." It is needless to say that Mr. Hudson's style was formed in the office of the *Herald*.

Mr. Hudson divides the history of journalism in this country into six periods. "First, the first American newspapers, 1690-1704; second, the Colonial Press, 1704-1755; third, the Revolutionary Press, 1755-1783; fourth, the Political Party Press, the Religious Press, the Agricultural Press, the Sporting Press, the Commercial Press, 1783-1833; fifth, the Transition Press, the Cheap Press, 1833-1835; sixth, the Independent Press, the Telegraph Press, 1835-1872." Any one can see for himself, however, that these divisions are of the loosest and most arbitrary kind. The Political Party Press did not come to an end in 1833; nor indeed did the Religious Press cease in that year to issue newspapers, nor the Agricultural Press, nor the Sporting Press, nor the Commercial Press; and we must suspect the "Transition Press" to have been invented for the purpose of bridging over the chasm between the fourth and sixth divisions, rather than because it defines any definite school of journalism. We doubt very much whether it is profitable to attempt such a classification at all; at any rate, it should be done from a more philosophical point of view than that indicated here. But Mr. Hudson does not pretend to be a philosopher. Inflated gossip of the "reportorial" sort is his vein, and both the inflation and the gossip are amusing.

Incidents in my Life. By D. D. Home. (New York: Holt & Williams, 1872.)—We had a right to expect from Mr. Home at least an interesting book. From time to time we have heard so much of this gentleman's accomplishments, as shown, for instance, in his gift of physical self-elongation and of contraction at will, of floating in and out of fifth-story windows, and of sportively transcending the most uniform physical laws, that we looked with some confidence to this book, the second in the series of Mr. Home's confessions, for some hint respecting the nature of his miraculous gifts. The introduction assures us that Mr. Home "writes as a man thoroughly in earnest, and who has himself no doubts of the phenomena which attend him." It tells how these phenomena commenced in his childhood, how they have been with him ever since, except during a few brief intervals, and how, while bringing him public notice and some valuable friendships, they have been "in some respects an inconvenience and a misfortune, and betoken conditions that do not promise length of days." Of the inconveniences and misfortunes to which Mr. Home's experiences as a medium have subjected him, we have already heard a part at least in Mr. Browning's poem, called "Mr. Sludge the Medium." Mr. Home admits that he has "reason to believe that Mr. Browning did intend his fancy portrait of Mr. Sludge to represent me"; but he is "unable to discern what characteristic of poetry" these verses possess other than the fact "that they were made by Mr. Browning." With his admission that he was the original Mr. Sludge the interest of his criticism ceases. He gives us no arguments or data by which to refute the arraignment by Mr. Browning, so that we must conclude that, although "Mr. Sludge the Medium" may be a very poor poem, yet it is a damaging attack upon Mr. Home.

We approach the chapter upon "Elongation and Compression" in a mood of somewhat heated expectation. Mr. Home, however, does not tell us a single word respecting the way in which he was "elongated" and "compressed," but a witness who calls himself Mr. Jenkin says, that on one occasion "Mr. Home lengthened to about 6 ft. 9 in., and then he shortened down below his normal height to about 5 ft. He then asked me to hold his feet, which I did by planting my foot on his instep whilst Mr. — held his head, his left hand being placed on his left shoulder. We carefully measured the extent of elongation against the wall—it showed 8 in." The rest of the book is hopelessly dull. Nearly two hundred pages are occupied with a depressing account of the chancery suit which arose from Mrs. Jane Lyon's bequest to Mr. Home of "twenty-four thousand pounds cash," and £6,798 17s. 4d. three per cent. consolidated bank annuities, equivalent to the further sum of six thousand pounds cash." Our readers will remember the result of this litigation, but the present volume breaks off abruptly with Mr. Home's lawyer's blame of Mrs. Lyon for "stating that she did not love the defendant." In the "Third Series," which we are led to expect as a pendant to the present volume, we hope that we shall learn who got the thirty thousand pounds, and something about the way in which Mr. Home practises "elongation" and "compression."

Die Rhetorik der Griechen und Römer, in systematischer Uebersicht dargestellt. Von Dr. Richard Volkmann. (Berlin, 1872, pp. 505. New York: B. Westermann & Co.)—This is a welcome contribution to the history of a lost art. Not many scholars outside of Germany have leisure to read and digest for themselves the twelve good-sized volumes of rhetoricians in the collections of Walz and of Spengel, Cornificius, Cicero's rhetorical books, and Quintilian, all as an aid to more important studies. Ernesti's Lexicon is antiquated, and its lexical form does not admit a scientific and systematic exposition of the subject. The most that has been done since Ernesti's day lies scattered round in commentaries, if we except the 'Hermagoras, oder Elemente der Rhetorik,' by the same Dr. Volkmann, published in 1835. The new work is entirely rewritten. In commending the book we do not mean, of course, to imply that any text-book on rhetoric can ever make speakers. Even the new-fledged German orators must find their inspiration in the real issues of the day, and may not be sensibly guided by the rules of the ancient rhetoricians. But for an intelligent appreciation of the Greek orators, of Cicero, and of the literature of the Roman imperial age, when rhetoric was the groundwork of education and touched life and letters at so many points, an exhaustive work of reference is almost indispensable.

A Concordance to the Constitution of the United States of America. With a Classified Index, and Questions for Educational Purposes. By Charles W. Stearns, M.D. (New York: Mason, Baker & Pratt, 1872.)—The title of this work sufficiently indicates its scope, and we need only add that it contains the full text of the Constitution preceding the analysis of it in the classified index. The plan adopted seems to meet all the requirements of ready reference, and the mechanical execution of the book leaves nothing to be desired. Legislators of all grades, lawyers, editors, and school-teachers, will find it convenient and useful.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
An Orphan of the Old Dominion.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Appleton's Hand-Book of Southern Travel.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Craven (Mme. A.), Fleurance.....	(Holt & Williams) \$1 25
Dasent (G. W.), Lady Sweetapple, swd.....	(D. Appleton & Co.) 0 75
Dumas (A. de), Man-Woman.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Erckmann-Chatelain (M.), Lettre d'une Electeur, swd.....	(F. W. Christern)
Fittig (R.), Wöhler's Outlines of Organic Chemistry.....	(H. C. Lea)
Hillern (Wilhelmine von), A Twofold Life.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 75
Lawrence (W. B.), Commentaire sur les Elements de Henry Wheaton, tome III., swd.....	(F. W. Christern)
Life of Rev. John Henry Hopkins.....	(F. J. Huntington & Co.)
Littell's Living Age, Vol. XXVII., Oct. and Dec., 1872.....	(Littell & Gay)
Riddle (A. G.), Law Students and Lawyers.....	(W. H. & O. H. Morrison)
Springer (Rebecca R.), Beechwood.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Stanley (H. M.), How I Found Livingstone.....	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 5 00
Stockton (F. R.), The Home.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Taine (H.), The Philosophy of Art, 2d ed.....	(Holt & Williams) 1 25
Taylor (Rev. W. M.), The Lost Found.....	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
The Cavalier and his Lady.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
The Greatest Plague of Life, swd.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 0 50
The True History of Joshua Davidson, Communist.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 0 40
The Workshop, No. 12, swd.....	(E. Seifert)
Timrod (H.), Poems.....	(E. J. Hale & Son)
Watt (R.), Hinsides Atlanterhavet, I., swd.....	(F. W. Christern)
Wells (Mary G.), Marie Derville.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 50
Wharton (C.), Treatment of the Horse.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Whitaker (J.), Almanack for 1873.....	(J. Whitaker)
Wright (E.), Savings Bank Life Insurance.....	(Boston)
Wright (W. B.), The Brook and Other Poems.....	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 50
Yale Nautical Almanac for 1873, swd.....	(C. C. Chatfield & Co.)
Yeager (G.), The Garden of Eden.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Yates (E.), The Yellow Flag.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 0 75
Zeitschrift für Erdkunde, No. 40, swd.....	(L. W. Schmitt)

TAINÉ'S PHILOSOPHY OF ART.

Uniform with 'The Ideal in Art,' 'Art in Greece,' etc., etc. 16mo, \$1 25.

This volume contains the course of lectures on the principles of art which was preliminary to the other courses contained in the author's volumes on 'Art in Greece,' 'Art in the Netherlands,' and 'The Ideal in Art.' In the later volumes 'The Philosophy of Art' is constantly referred to.

TAINÉ'S WORKS.

ITALY (Rome and Naples). Fine edition, royal 8vo, gilt top, cloth, \$2 50.

ITALY (Florence and Venice). 8vo, uniform with the above, \$2 50.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF ART (just ready). \$1 25.

IDEAL IN ART. 16mo, cloth, \$1 25.

ART IN THE NETHERLANDS. 16mo, cloth, \$1 25.

GREEK ART. 16mo, cloth, \$1 25.

ENGLISH LITERATURE. 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, \$7 50. The same, condensed, \$2 50.

ON INTELLIGENCE. 8vo, cloth, \$5.

NOTES ON ENGLAND. With a biographical sketch and a steel portrait of the author. Post 8vo, \$2 50.

FLEURANGE. By Mrs. Craven. Leisure Hour Series. 16mo, \$1 25.

"A novel of society containing highly dramatic situations and scenes of concentrated, if pure, passion, which girls may read . . . and which scholars can enjoy, . . . worthy of the most précieuse drawing-room, and yet it has power and 'go' enough to satisfy the ogre of the day who bolts his three volumes of criminal mystery in an afternoon."—*London Saturday Review*.

"Mme. Craven's works are not 'goody.' They are profoundly religious, but they strike deeper into human nature, they touch more subtly-sounding chords, than those which are stirred by our English 'religious' novel-writers."—*London Spectator*.

"'Fleurange' is notable, not only for its intense interest, its pathos, its simple and unadorned style, but for several excellent sketches of Italian, German, and Russian life and character."—*London Graphic*.

THE LEISURE HOUR SERIES.

I. **MY LITTLE LADY.** \$1 25.

II. **SMOKE.** By Ivan S. Turgénieff. \$1 25.

III. **FATHERS AND SONS.** By Ivan S. Turgénieff. \$1 25.

IV. **FLY-LEAVES.** A volume of verses by C. S. Calverley. \$1 25.

V. **THE MAN WITH THE BROKEN EAR.** By E. About. \$1 25.

VI. **HERMANN AGHA.** By W. Clifford Palgrave, author of 'Travels in Central Arabia.' \$1 25.

VII. **JOSEPH NOIREL'S REVENGE.** By Victor Cherbuliez. \$1 25.

VIII. **GOETHE'S ELECTIVE AFFINITIES.** \$1 25.

IX. **LIZA.** By Ivan S. Turgénieff. \$1 25.

X. **FLEURANGE.** By Mrs. Craven. \$1 25.

HOLT & WILLIAMS, Publishers,
25 Bond Street, New York.

FINE ARTS.

ROBERT SOMERVILLE will sell by Auction on Monday and Tuesday, 17th and 18th instant, at the Somerville Gallery, 82 Fifth Avenue, the large and valuable stock of fine Oil-Paintings and Water-Colors belonging to Messrs. Williams & Everett of Boston, who, in consequence of the late conflagration of their city, have determined to dispose of their Art Treasures as above at the Somerville Gallery, where they are now on exhibition free.

HARPER'S CATALOGUE. The attention of those designing to form Libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—comprehending over three thousand volumes.

Librarians, who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference. The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of six cents. Address **HARPER & BROTHERS,**
Franklin Square, New York.

ENCYCLOPEDIA OF ENGLISH

and American Poetry, from Caedmon to Longfellow. Edited by O. S. BEECHER.

Complete in two handsome octavo volumes, half-mor. or half-calf, \$12.

Sent to any part of the United States, carriage paid, on receipt of cash.

GEO. GEBBIE, Publisher,

730 Sansom Street, Philadelphia.

PROSPECTUS.

The purpose of this work is to present, in chronological order, examples of the acknowledged standards of English Poetry, from the dawn of English Literature to the present day.

Our aim in doing so is twofold: First, to furnish, in a comprehensive form and at a low price, a complete and systematically arranged work, consisting not only of the best pieces of the well-known Poets, but of every Ballad and Old Song which our editors may think worthy of a place in such a work.

The second part of our aim in this publication is to SUPPLEMENT THE EXISTING EDITIONS OF THE POETS. The best editions of the English Poets published (the Aldine, Bell, or Nimmo's) represent, at the most, not more than Forty Authors—no author being represented who has written less than sufficient to fill one volume; thus, the great store of anonymous poetry is overlooked entirely, and many a lone star (because it happens to be a solitary production) is allowed to slide into forgetfulness for want of company. We have gathered together a galaxy of such stars, and given them an appointed place; and where a history is attainable and interesting, we have inserted it among the biographical notices of Authors. Thus, we have representative pieces of *Five Hundred Poets*, with Biographies of the Authors—in contrast with the existing editions of the Poets—represented (as we said before) by *Forty*!

It is not the wish, nor within the means of all, to possess themselves of a complete "Edition of the Poets" (imperfectly representing English poetry as they do), and those possessing them do not make such favorites of their possessions as to read them from Chaucer to Tennyson page by page; but we modestly believe that every page in this work will be read and re-read, and as the price puts it within the reach of everybody, it will soon become the HOUSEHOLD EDITION OF POETRY, practically and veritably.

The earlier Poets have been carefully compared with the best originals in the Library of the British Museum (from which great storehouse our editors are indebted for the greater part of this compilation), the reading of various versions has been collated, and, where differences existed, the criticisms of our first literary guides have been searched, and their judgments consulted before a decision was taken.

A word remains to say about the arrangement of these volumes. Biographical Notices of nearly all the Poets whose works are quoted precede the poems of each period. Prefixed to each one of the seven periods into which it is divided is a sketch of its poetry. Every poem has the name of the Author at its foot, with the date of his birth and death. The poems are arranged in chronological sequence, and the American poems are represented in the final sheets of the volume, with Biographies in the same method as the others.

SCIENCE FOR THE PEOPLE.

CHEAPER THAN CHAMBERS'S.

Four American Institute Lectures, complete, with illustrations, on one sheet, for 3 cents.

TRIBUNE LECTURE EXTRA. No. 3, now ready. Contains: Brain and Mind, by Prof. B. G. Wilder; Chemical Discoveries of the Spectroscope, by Prof. G. F. Barker; Astronomical Conquests of the Spectroscope, by Prof. C. F. Young; Our Present Knowledge of the Sun, also by Prof. Young. 3 cents per copy; by mail, 5 cents.

TRIBUNE LECTURE EXTRA. No. 2 (same price). Contains Beecher's "Compulsory Education," Wendell Phillips's "Lost Arts," Bellows's "Is there a God?" and Jas. T. Fields's "Masters of the Situation," complete, and two Mark Twain Letters.

TRIBUNE LECTURE EXTRA. No. 1. Contains Prof. Tyndall's Six Scientific Lectures on Light, complete, with illustrations. 3 cents per sheet; by mail, 5 cents. Address **NEW YORK TRIBUNE.**

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW,

at Six Dollars a year, or Fifty Cents a number. Contents of Jan. No. The Principle of Authority.

F. Harrison.—Grote's Aristotle. S. Mill.—Mr. Stephens's Introduction to the Indian Evidence Act. H. S. Maine.—Memorial Verses on Théophile Gautier. A. C. Swinburne.—Ibsen, the Norwegian Satirist. E. W. Gosse.—Forty Years of the House of Lords. F. B. Graves.—The Eustace Diamonds. Chaps. LXXIII. to LXXVI. A. Trollope.—Critical Notices: 'Middlemarch' and 'Love is Enough.' S. Colvin. **HOLT & WILLIAMS,** New York.

BARRIERS BURNED AWAY.

"A novel of absorbing interest."—N. Y. Evening Mail.

"The leading characters are drawn not only with much skill, but with a clear insight into the workings of strong souls under the influence of the highest spiritual truths, as well as mere human sentiment."—Advance, Chicago.

"We congratulate Mr. Roe upon his story of the day. It is thoroughly national."—N. Y. Observer.

BARRIERS BURNED AWAY. By

Rev. E. P. Roe. Large 12mo, \$1 75.

Seventh thousand fast selling.

DODD & MEAD, Publishers,

762 Broadway, New York.

BOOKS BY MAIL.

The Publisher of the *Nation* will hereafter forward by mail any book for which an order may be sent him, on the following conditions, which must be strictly observed:

1. That the money be forwarded in advance whenever the price is known.
2. That enquiries as to price or other particulars be accompanied by a stamped and addressed envelope for the reply.
3. That both money and books shall pass through the mails at the risk of the purchaser.

THE NATION,

5 Beekman Street,

P. O. Box 6732. New York City.

NOW READY.

A STRIKING POEM BY A NEW POET.

THE BROOK and OTHER POEMS.

BY WILLIAM B. WRIGHT.

One vol. 12mo, \$1 50.

From the N. Y. Daily Tribune.

"The author's name is not familiar to our memory, and we know not the influences which have inspired his heart with so devout a passion for Nature, and moulded his rhyme into forms of such subtle delicacy and grace; but no one can mistake the presence of the loving soul, the plastic eye, and the cunning hand which have woven so beautiful a wreath of poetry from the commonest materials of rural life. He comes before us not as a rude, brawny Berserker from the woods, flinging around the trophies of giant barbaric strength with defiant lavishness of gift, but as the man of gentle and gracious culture, conversant with the great masters of song, informed with the wealth of lettered knowledge, and studious of artistic effect in the choice of expression; but crowning all with the high spontaneous faculty that evokes fresh conceptions from familiar scenes, and interprets the ancient suggestions of Nature by living images which give them a new voice and deeper significance."

A NEW AND CHEAPER EDITION OF

THE FEDERALIST.

In 1 vol., cloth, crown 8vo, price reduced to \$2 50.

THE FEDERALIST, as reprinted from the original text, under Mr. Henry B. Dawson's editorial supervision, has been generally received as the final edition of this very valuable work. It is now printed in this smaller form and less expensive style, in order to secure for it wider circulation, especially among the students in our colleges and higher schools, many of which have placed it upon their lists of works for reference.

Either of the above works sent, prepaid, on receipt of price by the publishers,

SCRIBNER, ARMSTRONG & CO.,

654 Broadway, New York.

SPECIAL NOTICE.—The Publisher of the NATION will hereafter forward by mail any book for which an order may be sent him, on the following conditions, which must be strictly observed :

1. That the money be forwarded in advance whenever the price is known.
2. That enquiries as to price or other particulars be accompanied by a stamped and addressed envelope for the reply.
3. That both money and books shall pass through the mails at the risk of the purchaser.

HISTORY OF English Literature

BY

H. A. TAINÉ.

"I am about to write the history of a literature, and to seek in it the psychology of a people."—*Introduction.*

"Possibly it would be better to leave my task to those who are at home in England; . . . but . . . a stranger has one advantage—custom does not blunt his perceptions; he is unconsciously struck by the principal characteristics, and treats the subject with reference to them. This, then, is my whole excuse. I offer it to the reader with some special confidence, because, when I pass in review my own ideas about France, I find many which have been given me by strangers, and by none more than the English."—*Preface to Translation.*

CONTENTS.—Volume I.

BOOK I. THE SOURCE.—Chap. I.—The Saxons. II.—The Normans. III.—The New Tongue.

BOOK II. THE RENAISSANCE.—Chap. I.—The Pagan Renaissance. II.—The Theatre. III.—Ben Jonson. IV.—Shakespeare. V.—The Christian Renaissance. VI.—Milton.

BOOK III. THE CLASSIC AGE.—Chap. I.—The Restoration.

Volume II.

BOOK III. THE CLASSIC AGE.—Chap. II.—Dryden. III.—The Revolution. IV.—Addison. V.—Swift. VI.—The Novelists. VII.—The Poets.

BOOK IV. MODERN LIFE.—Chap. I.—Ideas and Productions. II.—Lord Byron. III.—The Past and the Present.

BOOK V. MODERN AUTHORS.—Introductory Note. Chap. I.—The Novel: Dickens. II.—The Novel—continued: Thackeray. III.—Criticism and History: Macaulay. IV.—Philosophy and History: Carlyle. V.—Philosophy: Stuart Mill. VI.—Poetry: Tennyson.

INDEX.

Two vols., cloth, \$7 50. Sent post-free on receipt of price.

Publisher of THE NATION,

BOX 6732, NEW YORK.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

BACK NUMBERS of the *Nation* wanted.—Nos. 2, 5, 10, 85—for which 30 cents each will be paid if sent at once. Box 6732, New York.

EVENING EMPLOYMENT wanted by a young man of good literary abilities. "DELTA," Sabin & Sons, 84 Nassau Street, City.

A HARVARD STUDENT desires Private Pupils. Address Box 123, Nation Office.

A GRADUATE of one of the best Eastern Colleges, with ten years' experience in Public School and College Teaching, desires a situation. High-school preferred. Best references. Address PRINCIPAL, Nation Office.

WANTED.—A Gentleman of culture and successful experience as an educator and disciplinarian, to take charge of the Boarding Department of a well-known and successful School for Boys. It is patronized by wealthy people, and limited in numbers. The income is liberal, the location is excellent, the reputation of the school is enviable, and the opportunity to the right man is most rare. Address P. O. Box 3445, N. Y.

A HARVARD Senior, intending to remain in Cambridge, desires pupils to fit for College after the present (College) year. References if desired. Address J. R. A., Cambridge, Mass.

A GENTLEMAN of thorough classical and scientific education, and of extended experience in teaching, is willing to receive a pupil for two hours a day. Address W. A. A., Box 71 Nation office.

An experienced American Lawyer, now in Europe, tenders his services to those having legal or business negotiations in Great Britain or on the Continent. Refers to Winslow, Lanier & Co., Bankers, or Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., Publishers, New York. Address WILLIAM C. REYNOLDS, care City Bank of London, England.

DE VEAUX COLLEGE, Suspension Bridge, N. Y., near Niagara Falls. Church School for Boys. Cadet organizations. Regulations with full details.

S. AGNES' SCHOOL.—The third year will begin, God willing, October 2. The School will move into the new building November 1. Terms, \$300 per annum. Application for admission should be made at once to Miss CHASE, S. Agnes' School, Albany.

FIRE IN WEST EATON, NEW YORK.

A WOOLLEN MILL THAT WOULD HAVE BEEN BURNED BUT FOR A
BABCOCK EXTINGUISHER.

West Eaton, N. Y., January 9, 1873.

F. W. FARWELL, Secretary, 407 Broadway, N. Y.

DEAR SIR: Please send us another Babcock Extinguisher at once. The one we recently purchased of you saved us last evening from a large loss, perhaps the destruction of our entire mill.

The fire was caused by the accidental dropping of a kerosene oil lamp from the hands of a boy who was passing through the carding-room. The oil spread over the floor and took fire, running rapidly among the loose wool and machinery, and fanned by the revolving wheels. We brought the "Babcock" to bear upon the flames, and within one minute the fire was put out.

With the one now ordered we shall have three machines, and will probably want more.

Respectfully,

BARNES, MITCHELL & HOWE.

NOVEL READERS

SHOULD ENQUIRE FOR

'THE LAWRENCES'

The Book Trade supplied by
THE AMERICAN NEWS COMPANY.

TWO READABLE BOOKS,

PUBLISHED BY

HURD & HOUGHTON, NEW YORK,
THE RIVERSIDE PRESS, CAMBRIDGE.

I.

A MEMORIAL OF ALICE AND
Phæbe Cary. With some of their later Poems.
By Mary Clemmer Ames. Illustrated by two
Portraits on Steel. In one volume crown 8vo, cloth,
extra, \$2.

"The story of the life of these sisters is touchingly and beautifully told, and though the biographer laments the difficulties and the imperfections of her work, we are convinced that it could not have been committed to better hands."—*The Churchman*.

"It is a book of which we shall be fond—of which we shall be proud; because it portrays two rare and exquisite souls whose genius shed lustre upon American letters—whose saintly virtues sanctified and ennobled all womanhood."—*Chicago Post*.

II.

FOR THE AMERICAN TRACT SOCIETY.

HOMES AND HOSPITALS; or, Two
Phases of Woman's Work, as exhibited in the
Labors of Amy Dutton and Agnes E. Jones. In one
volume crown 8vo, cloth, \$1 50.

"Here is a book that will be read with unflagging interest by all. It is a simple story of how two women worked among the poor and forlorn, and it exhibits two ways in which they made themselves useful. One, Miss Dutton, went day by day from her own home to minister to the distressed in their wretched homes. She still kept her place in the circle of friends to which she belonged. The other, Miss Jones, gave up home, and all the attractions of the society of those she loved. She put herself under a systematic course of training at the celebrated institution at Kaiserswerth, and then went into hospitals and workhouses in Liverpool and London. Her life is one of the most remarkable of its kind. Her devotion was intense, and her accomplished results wonderful. The remarks of Miss Nightingale, in the introduction, are only a just tribute of one hard worker to the memory of another."

BIBLIOTHECA AMERICANA.

BANGS, MERWIN & CO., 604 Broadway, cor. of
Fourth Street, will Sell at Auction, Monday, February
17, and following days, at 4 P.M., a Large and Valuable
PRIVATE LIBRARY of Books, Pamphlets, and Manuscripts,
illustrating American Antiquities and General
and Local History.

NOW READY.

Sixteenth Edition, Revised and Enlarged. with Index to
Authors.

VAN NOSTRAND'S CATALOGUE
of Scientific Books. Eighty pages, printed on fine
paper. Including titles of all leading works,
Foreign and American, in Architecture, Carpentry,
Building, Astronomy, Navigation, Ship-building, Meteorology,
Brewing, Distilling, Wine-making, Chemistry,
Physics, Philosophy, Coal, Coal Oil, Gas, Drawing, Painting,
Photography, Electricity, Electric Telegraph, Engineering,
Machinery, Mechanics, Geology, Mineralogy, Mining,
Metallurgy, Hydraulics, Hydrostatics, Iron, Steel, Life Insurance, Mathematics, Works of Reference,
etc. Sent on receipt of 10 cents, by mail, post-paid, to
any address.

D. VAN NOSTRAND, Publisher and Importer,
No. 23 Murray Street and No. 27 Warren St., New York.

THE LAND OF ISRAEL. A Journal
of Travels in Palestine, undertaken with special
reference to its Physical Character. By H. B.
Tristram, M.A., F.L.S. 8vo. cloth. With a number
of full-page Illustrations, Woodcuts, and Maps. Price \$2.

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF
the Bible. A Description of every Animal and
Plant mentioned in Holy Scripture. By H. B.
Tristram. Illustrated. 12mo. cloth, \$3.

SCRIPTURE MANNERS AND
Customs. Being an Account of the Domestic Habits,
Arts, etc., of Eastern Nations mentioned in
Holy Scripture. Illustrated. 12mo. cloth, \$2 25.

THE BIBLE ATLAS OF MAPS
and Plans to illustrate the Geography and Topography
of the Old and New Testaments and the
Apocrypha, with Explanatory Notes. By Samuel Clark.
Also, A Complete Index of the Geographical Names in
the English Bible. By George Grove, M.A. Large 4to,
cloth, gilt edges.

POTT, YOUNG & CO.,

Cooper Union, New York.

COLGATE & CO.'S
CASHMERE BOUQUET
Toilet Soap.

NEW BOOKS NOW READY.

I.

Benson J. Lossing's Great Historical Work,

THE LIFE AND TIMES
OF
Maj.-Gen. Philip Schuyler.

Two volumes crown 8vo, with two steel-plate likenesses.
Price \$5.

II.

Mrs. Annie Edwards's Most Powerful Story,

PHILIP EARNSCLIFFE.

BY

MRS. ANNIE EDWARDS,

Author of 'Ought We to Visit Her?' 'Archie Lovell,'
'The Ordeal for Wives,' etc., etc.

One volume 8vo, fancy cloth..... \$1 75
One volume 8vo, paper..... 1 00

"Mrs. Annie Edwards is one of the very best of the
story writers of the day."—*Journal, Boston*.

III.

A New and thoroughly Revised Edition of

WORDS AND THEIR USES.

BY

RICHARD GRANT WHITE.

One volume crown 8vo, price \$2.

IV.

NEARLY READY.

A New and Enlarged Edition of

THE NAPOLEON DYNASTY.

CONTAINING A FULL AND COMPLETE

Biography of Napoleon III.

This remarkable book had a sale of nearly 50,000 copies
the first year of its publication.

One vol. crown 8vo, toned paper, and 23 full-page portraits, price \$2 50.

Either of the above sent by mail, post-paid, on receipt
of the price.

SHELDON & COMPANY,

677 Broadway, New York.

CASSELL'S PRACTICAL DRAWING BOOKS.

1. LINEAR DRAWING. 150 Engravings. Price \$1.
2. PROJECTION. The Development of Surfaces and Penetration of Solids. 40 Engravings. Price \$1.
3. SYSTEMATIC DRAWING AND SHADING. 38 Engravings. Price \$1.
4. BUILDING CONSTRUCTION AND ARCHITECTURAL DRAWING. 130 Engravings. Price \$1.
5. DRAWING FOR CARPENTERS AND JOINERS. 250 Engravings. Price \$1 75.
6. PRACTICAL PERSPECTIVE. 64 Engravings. Price \$1 25.
7. DRAWING FOR MACHINISTS. 140 Engravings. Price \$2.
8. DRAWING FOR STONEMASONS. Price \$1 50.
9. MODEL DRAWING. Price \$1 50.
10. GOTHIC STONEWORK. Price \$1 50.
11. DRAWING FOR CABINETMAKERS. \$1 50.
12. ARMS AND AMMUNITION. \$1 25.
13. DRAWING FOR METAL-PLATE WORKERS. \$1 50.
14. COLOR. By Professor Church. \$1 25.

CASSELL, PETTER & GALPIN,

595 Broadway, New York.

THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

February 10, 1873.

NO improvement has taken place, since our last report, in the condition of the money market, which has remained active at 7 per cent. to 7 per cent. and a commission of $\frac{1}{16}$ per diem added. A fair quotation for the week would be 7 per cent. gold to $\frac{1}{32}$ interest. Loans were made as low as 4 per cent., but they were exceptional and late in the day. Money is easy on call in Boston, where a large amount has been accumulating in preparation for the expected requirements of building purposes in the spring; but there is no disposition to loan much out on time at anything like the call rates. In New York "time money" is the cheapest, provided borrowers take it for 5 or 6 months—a great deal having recently been loaned at 7 per cent. and 7 per cent. gold for that time.

Owing to a scarcity of commercial paper, the market has been dull. A large amount was taken by buyers last month at the higher rates then prevailing, which pretty well cleared the market, and there has been, since then, very little making. Rates for first-class commission names are quoted $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and for good names 9 to 12 per cent.

The condition of the European money markets has undergone no change. The Bank of England rate of discount remains at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., with money in the open market still lower. The Bank of England reports a gain of £379,000 in bullion, and the Bank of France a loss of 250,000 francs.

We regret to say that little progress is being made in the Legislature, apparently, towards the repeal of the usury law. A bill has been introduced in the Senate repealing the present misdemeanor clause, and providing that when more than 7 per cent. per annum is charged for the use of money the lender can be forced to forfeit all interest, but obtain payment of the principal. There is some probability that a law will be passed exempting bonds and mortgages from taxation; but it may only apply to the Counties of New York, Kings, and Westchester.

The bank statement is again unfavorable, showing, when compared with that of the previous week, a falling off of \$271,200 in the reserve, and an increase of \$3,150,300 in the liabilities. The banks now hold \$2,183,150 in excess of the legal reserve, against \$3,246,925 last week—a falling off of \$1,058,775.

The following are the statements for the two weeks ending February 1 and February 8:

	Feb. 1.	Feb. 8.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$286,879,600	\$293,939,000	Inc. \$7,059,400
Specie.....	18,612,200	19,035,400	Inc. 423,200
Circulation.....	27,501,000	27,520,600	Inc. 19,600
Deposits.....	217,163,500	220,299,200	Inc. 3,135,700
Legal tenders.....	43,802,100	45,107,700	Dec. 694,400

The following analysis of the above shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Feb. 1.	Feb. 8.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$18,612,200	\$19,035,400	Inc. 423,200
Legal tenders.....	43,802,100	45,107,700	Dec. 694,400
Total reserve.....	\$64,414,300	\$64,143,100	Dec. 271,200
Circulation.....	27,501,000	27,520,600	Inc. 19,600
Deposits.....	217,163,500	220,299,200	Inc. 3,135,700
Total liabilities.....	\$244,669,800	\$247,819,800	Inc. 3,150,000
25 per cent. reserve.....	61,167,375	61,954,950	Inc. 787,575
Excess over legal reserve.....	3,246,925	2,183,150	Dec. 1,058,775

The Stock market has been active. The predictions made by the newspapers and parties favorable to the success of the syndicates relative to the placing of the new 5 per cent. bonds, at the time of the opening of the subscription books, caused quite a buoyant feeling to be manifested on the Stock Exchange, and prices started up on Monday in the most encouraging manner for the "bulls." As the week wore on without any reliable information as to the success of the loan, there was a halt in the upward movement, and the market became weak and unsteady, finally closing on Saturday $\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. off from the highest quotations of the week.

The principal dealings have been carried on in Western Union Telegraph, the total transactions for the week footing up 458,000 shares. The opening price on Monday was $87\frac{1}{2}$, from which point there was an advance to $94\frac{1}{2}$. It is now pretty well ascertained that Commodore Vanderbilt has been a large purchaser with the view of obtaining the control of the Company.

The following explanation of the movement in the stock, last week, is given in the New York Times of February 7:

"For some years past the policy of the administration of the Company has been to apply their net earnings to the purchase and withdrawal of their own stock; to reduce the capital of \$40,000,000, which would be made to pay only a moderate dividend at the time on this sum, to (or below) \$30,000,000. Pursuant to this conclusion, the stock to the amount of \$10,500,000 has been gradually purchased and withdrawn. But it transpires that the profits of the concern justified the purchase of and payment for only about \$8,000,000, or 80,000 shares of the stock, in cash, and that on 25,000 additional shares the Company were borrowers of about \$1,000,000 cash (report says \$950,000) on pledge of the stock. The loan was made through the Stock Exchange house of Mr. Horace F. Clark, and the stock was supposed to be tied up, or hypothecated for the loan. When the present Bull movement for control of the Company was made apparent on the street, it was not only not favored by the President of the Company, or by Messrs. H. F. Clark, Augustus Schell, and John Steward, but the suspicion was current that they were really hostile to the advance, having sold their own stock, if not short on the market. On Sunday last, Mr. Orton, the President, then at Chicago, seeing the price up to 88 and 89 per cent., telegraphed to his Vice-President to resell 15,000 shares of the stock, previously retired by the Company, through Clark's Stock Exchange brokers, Messrs. George B. Grinnell & Co. He had no authority to do so, as the stock was wholly under the control of the Executive Committee of the Company, Messrs. E. D. Morgan, Banker, A. B. Cornell, Clark, Schell, Steward, Palmer, Greenleaf, Wesley, and Durkee. The 15,000 shares were not withdrawn from the 25,000 hypothecated stock with Messrs. Grinnell & Co., but were issued directly from the office of the Company, and the proceeds (not needed in the current finances of the concern) were re-loaned to Clark's firm on other stock collateral. When Mr. Vanderbilt and his friends discovered, yesterday evening, the surreptitious sale of the stock of the Company at $83\frac{1}{2}$ to $87\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. on Tuesday, without the shadow of authority, and that heavy short sales had been made on 'private information' that 'the Company were selling,' they jumped to the not unreasonable conclusion that the same brokers who had advanced less than 40 per cent. on the other 25,000 shares belonging to the Company had possibly lent the stock out on the Street to parties hostile to the recent advance. The result was a rise, in a few hours, of 5 and 6 per cent. above the prices of Tuesday."

The Pacific Mail Steamship Company "has broken another shaft," but notwithstanding this additional calamity the stock suddenly improved about the time the news came in the Street and jumped from 72 to 75, continuing to advance till Friday, when the price reached 76 $\frac{3}{4}$. Erie, next to Western Union, has been most actively dealt in. The fluctuations of the week in the active stocks have been as follows: N. Y. C. and H. R., $106\frac{1}{4}$ to $104\frac{5}{8}$; Erie, $69\frac{1}{4}$ to $65\frac{1}{4}$; Lake Shore, $96\frac{1}{2}$ to $94\frac{5}{8}$; Rock Island, $114\frac{1}{4}$ to $113\frac{1}{4}$; B. H. and Erie, $10\frac{1}{4}$ to $8\frac{3}{4}$; Ohio and Miss., $49\frac{3}{8}$ to $48\frac{1}{8}$; C. C. and I. C., $43\frac{1}{4}$ to $40\frac{1}{4}$; Western Union, $94\frac{1}{2}$ to $87\frac{1}{2}$; Pacific Mail, $76\frac{3}{4}$ to $71\frac{1}{4}$.

The Treasury has given notice that \$100,000,000 5-20's of the issue of 1862 will be redeemed, and interest will cease upon them on and after March 1. This is considered as evidence that the syndicates have succeeded in negotiating the sale of at least a like amount of new 5 per cents. The exact amount of subscriptions cannot be ascertained for some days, and in the meantime the members of the syndicates keep very quiet regarding the success of the loan. Considerable opposition has been met with from certain of the German bankers, who were "left out in the cold," by their operations in the foreign markets on bonds, and also in our gold market, which tended to discourage subscriptions on both sides of the Atlantic.

The State and railroad bond markets have been dull and free from any important movements beyond an advance in Central Pacific Railroad bonds to $104\frac{1}{4}$, which is, we believe, the highest price for any 6 per cent. railroad bond in this market, and is due to their popularity as an investment in Europe—principally in Germany. The earnings of the road show a handsome increase over those of last year. Tennessee bonds are lower.

The gold market is strong, the price having touched $114\frac{1}{4}$ on Saturday and closed at 114. The German bankers, before referred to, have been making desperate efforts to create the impression of a failure of the syndicates in their operations, and, in order to do so, have taken hold of the gold market and run up the price. The continued shipments, however, have something to do with the advance. The amount shipped last week was \$1,642,370, making the total amount shipped since January 1, 1873, \$9,045,104, against \$1,022,353 for the same period in 1872, \$4,310,675 in 1871, \$3,674,417 in 1870, \$5,130,172 in 1869, and \$9,752,227 in 1868.

BANKING OFFICE OF FISK & HATCH,
No. 5 Nassau Street, New York, Feb. 5, 1873.

THE CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO, the CENTRAL PACIFIC, AND WESTERN PACIFIC BONDS, all of which have been negotiated by us, we believe to be among the best and most desirable investment securities in the market, which in time must become very scarce; especially as the Government will probably pay off, in gold, \$300,000,000 FIVE-TWENTIES, and a large amount of money thus released from investment must find its way into this class of securities.

THE CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS, the total amount of which is only

\$15,000,000, are secured upon a property worth \$35,000,000 to \$40,000,000, and are fully equal in intrinsic value to the CENTRAL PACIFIC BONDS. They are issued in denominations of \$100, \$500, and \$1,000, coupon or registered, and at their present market price, $86\frac{1}{4}$ and accrued interest, are very desirable.

THE CENTRAL PACIFIC SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS are too well known to require description or commendation. Their total amount is \$25,885,000; they have for a long time ranged in market price near or above par. Their price to-day is 103 to $103\frac{1}{4}$.

THE WESTERN PACIFIC SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS amount to \$2,735,000. This road is now conso-

lidated with the CENTRAL PACIFIC, and the payment of its bonds, principal and interest, is assumed by the latter. Coupon Bonds, \$1,000 each. Their market price to-day is $91\frac{3}{4}$ to 92. As they have recently been introduced on the Stock Exchange, we expect to see them rapidly rise to the price of CENTRAL PACIFICs, being substantially the same in character and value.

We buy and sell, as usual, Government Bonds, receive deposits, on which we allow interest, make collections, and conduct a general banking business in all its branches.

FISK & HATCH.

